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ABSTRACT

The paper, one-third of which consists of appendixes, examines the emergence, development, and growth of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. The literature is reviewed relative to the historical, philosophical, and general forces bearing on the evolution of sign language into a formal language, which was a prerequisite to the organization of sign language interpreters. Organizational data on the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. are provided, including its beginnings, development, growth, and precipitous rise in importance and scope. Aspects touched upon include certification, the deaf interpreter's role, postsecondary programs for deaf people, legislation concerning the use of deaf interpreters, and the shortage of deaf interpreters. The developing interrelationships that occurred as social forces caused a sign language upheaval are traced, along with subsequent side effects. Such aspects as deaf militancy, sign language classes for professionals, and the accelerated usage of pidgin sign language are discussed. Among the appendixes are a code of ethics for deaf interpreters, standards and criteria for sign instructors guidance network certification, a suggested fee schedule for deaf interpreters, and a bibliography. (DLS)

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ABSTRACT

A HISTORICAL STUDY OF THE NEO-PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATION, REGISTRY OF INTERPRETERS FOR THE DEAF, INC. (1964-1978)

By

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B.A., St. Mary's Dominican College

M.A., Loyola University, 1973

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A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Walden University

July 1979

EC 122564

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ABSTRACT

The primary concern of this study was to record the emergence, development, and precipitious growth of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc.

The evolutionary development of gestures into a full-fledged language was examined in light of the schools for deaf individuals which, often unintentionally, fostered sign language's growth. The societal factors which influenced its early usage, subsequent one-hundred year rejection, and the re-acceptance of sign language in the 1960's were documented.

Attitudinal changes were discussed for they were the catalyst for the transition in the sixties of the communication "helpers" into a new occupational field, the sign language interpreter, in keeping with the movement towards equality for all minorities. Specific legislative provisions and their implementation were reported to depict the increasing usage of sign language, as an necessary communication modality.

The early beginnings, establishment, movement toward professionalism, and scope of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. (1964-1978) was investigated. The growth of integrated post-secondary programs and increased vocational services for the deaf population led to a severe shortage of interpreters. The proliferation of interpreter

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training programs to alleviate this shortage of qualified personnel was discussed.

The numerous interlocking components which led to developing interrelationships, the sign language upheaval and its side-effects, were complex. The impetus of the support of Vocational Rehabilitation Services lent visibility to sign language through the mainstreaming of deaf people themselves, and the concurrent growth of job situations for interpreters.

The repercussions of this visibility were outlined for its reviberations are on-going. As American people began to see sign language, sign language classes for professionals, deaf people, and interested others boomed across the nation to meet the increasing demands to learn it. This sign language upheaval encouraged people to choose interpreting as a career, used interpreters as teachers, and an appreciation for the complex task of interpreting ensued.

The Communication Skills Program, not only fostered this upheaval, but helped to professionalize a new occupational field, the sign language teacher. Side-effects were reported as: increased publications and materials, bilingualism in the schools for deaf children, variations in sign language, augmented use of Pidgin Sign Language, efforts to standardize the language, and application of sign language as a tool with non-deaf persons.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The crude pointing gestures of the caveman evolved into the artful undulations of hands by the National Theatre of the Deaf. The idea that a gestural language could become a highly complex, formal method of communication was not even considered until the sixteenth century, although gesture language has been considered the oldest known communication modality of human beings. Contemporary American culture, even Hamlet and income tax preparation, has been transmitted by sign language.

Sign language interpreting as a profession was not established until 1964. Even though, since earliest recorded history, certain individuals were employed to interpret by signs during cross-cultural and cross-linguistic encounters. As the economic, political and cultural characteristics of American society changed, a consequential relationship occurred which caused increased usage of the communication "helpers" for the deaf population. These "helpers" attained the status of neo-professionals in 1964 with the establishment of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc.

The purpose of this organization was to remove the major handicap of deaf people, which has been communication. Sign language interpreters allowed this "silent" minority the opportunity to be informed and vocal. An augmented awareness of equal rights for the "invisible" minority, the deaf population, meant that the role and training of the professional interpreter became more important. Yet, serving the deaf population estimated to be two million was the comparatively small group of 586 comprehensively certified interpreters. Although research data, mentioned by Riekehof, indicated that sign language ranked as the third most used foreign language in the United States, this language continued to have a scarcity of competent interpreters. (319:30).

The heightened public awareness of the deaf population, sign language, and interpreters, in addition to the concurrent federal legislation, forced states to realize the necessity for interpreters and the severe shortage of these professionals. This realization that only these professionals qualified in a communication modality allowed the deaf population to exercise its constitutional rights, caused unprecedent growth of this new occupational field and initiated developing interrelationships throughout the entire field of deafness.

The literature depicted the truth of Helen Keller's statement that deafness "means the loss of the most vital stimulus--the sound of voice that brings language, sets thoughts astir, and keeps us in the intellectual company of man." She viewed deafness as a worse misfortune for it

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cut the individual off from people, whereas blindness cut one off from things. (41:68).

Within the last decade, interpreters were being sought as the voice and ears of the deaf population. Perhaps Mindel and Vernon's words were no longer accurate that "the time has yet to come when the hearing man's deafness to the deaf man's needs is cured." (51:99).

As the number and variety of situations employing interpreters increased there was a corresponding growth in quality of interpreters. Professional interpreters, certified by the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc., contributed to the professionalism of the field and defined the parameters of the discipline. These two factors, combined with legislative and social forces, promise greater progress in the integration of the deaf population, through the communication provided by interpreters.

The late Martin Luther King, Jr., as quoted by Lauritsen, said:

> People fail to get along because they fear each other. They fear each other because they do not know each other. They do not know each other because they have not properly communicated. (289:52).

Through the communication facilitators, interpreters, deaf people have been granted their right to receptive and expressive communciation which is the basic tenet for all other rights. As communication increased, the attitudinal barriers of the predominantly hearing society broke down, eliminating one main invisible handicap. Communication aided society in understanding the needs of the deaf population which led to increased social and legislative action, allowing the integration of deaf individuals into the mainstream through the medium of interpreters. This movement of the seventies to utilize interpreters led Oyer to state that "one of the notable characteristics of a civilized society is in the provisions it makes for its members who sustain handicapping conditions." (56:13).

This study reconstructed the apparent emergency program development, and precipitious growth of this new occupational field, sign language interpretation. To provide a comprehensive overview, prior, concurrent, and subsequent key variables were included.

Upon investigation it was discovered that no documentation existed regarding the history of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. (1964-1978). For posterity, this paper was a recorded account of the forces which generated the necessity for sign language interpreters and their subsequent growth as a professional organization. In addition to filling this void, this paper was written as a reference source for present and prospective members of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. A coherent description of what had occurred could serve as a factual basis upon which future policies and strategies might be formulated to make this interpreter organization more responsive to the concerns and needs of the individuals in it and to the community.

Although this historical review did not generate new data its value was to probe and characterize existing work, to generate new conceptual frames, and to point out research gaps and promising opportunities. The proliferation of interpreter training programs in the seventies occurred as legislation provided equal opportunities for the deaf population which necessitated the employment of sign language interpreters. The collection of existing literature was to advance understanding of evolutionary processes to better direct future change efforts in the training and evaluation of new interpreters.

This recording of data provided information not only for the organization, its members, and interpreter training programs, but for the essential component of the organization, the deaf consumer of interpreting services. The documentation of the evolution of their language, the purposes of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. and the developing interrelationships was to provide the present and potential deaf consumers with a clearer understanding. It was felt that this knowledge might lead to a keener appreciation of their language, and more effective use of the interpreters of their language.

The greatest need for the study was as a resource for federal, state, and local agencies to better understand the necessity for the inclusion of the new professional group in the delivery of their services. The developing interrelationships of this organization needed to be understood so that legislation of the seventies could be successfully enacted and enforced. The Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (Section 504), the Education of All Handicapped Act of 1978 (Public Law 94-142), and Comprehensive Rehabilitation Services Amendments of 1978 (Public Law 95-602) contained provisions which amounted to the Civil Rights Act for the Handicapped, and their impact has been reverberating throughout the nation. The interpretation of these laws provided for interpreting services so that the deaf individual was not excluded from participation, denied benefits, or discriminated against in any program receiving federal financial assistance.

This work was a limited first step in encouraging further synthesizing investigations of the significant changes in norms, relationships, and movement toward the nation's equal rights objectives, including the full integration of the deaf population.

The documentation of the evolutionary nature of interpreting, the organization itself, and its developing interrelationships was needed to provide a deeper awareness of this viable service. This research was defensible in terms of the volume of new information available and the need for synthesis.

In the field of deafness, there remained persistent, ambiguous definitions. The following terms, unique to this occupational field, were used as defined:

American Sign Language:	(Synonyms: Ameslan and ASL) The language used by most deaf people when communicating with each other; a language in itself with its own syntax, semantics, and morphology.
Deaf Person:	One with an auditory disability who cannot comprehend the spoken language through the ear alone with or without the use of auditory amplification. Writer's Note: Deaf has been used as an adjective to facilitate reading, not to emphasize the handicap of the person.
Fingerspelling:	Use of the manual alphabet to form words or sentences.
Hard-of-Hearing Person:	One whose sense of hearing was disabled to an extent that the understanding of speech was difficult with or without auditory amplification.
Hearing-Impaired Person:	Anyone with a hearing deficiency.
Interpreter:	A person who met the minimum certification requirements of the Registry of Interpreters, Inc., and upheld the code of ethics.
Interpreting:	The act of accurately transmitting the ideas and content of a speaker into another language. In this paper the term refers to the presentation of the oral English language into American Sign Language and vice versa.
Manual Alphabet:	A system of twenty-six different singlehand positions representing the letters of the alphabet.
Oral Method:	A method of training or educating a deaf or hard-of-hearing person using primarily speech and speechreading
Postlingual Deafness:	Those whose deafness occurred after speech and language skills were acquired.

Prelingual Deafness:	Those whose deafness was present at birth or acquired prior to the development of language or speech skills.
Rochester Method:	A method of instructing a hearing-impaired person in which the receptive medium of speechreading was simultaneously supplemented by fingerspelling.
Sign Language:	A visual language which used manual symbols (used interchangeably with manual communication).
Signed English:	The use of American sign language in English word order.
Simultaneous Method:	The method of instructing the hearing-impaired person through the simultaneous use of signs and sp[illegible] (also fingerspelling when needed). This method has been used in the field of interpreting to mean using sign language and mouthing the words.
Speechreading:	The ability to understand the oral language or speech of a person through the observation of lip movements and facial expressions (often used to mean lipreading).

This study was presented in five chapters.

Chapter I contained the introduction of the study, the significance of the study, the definition of terms, and the organization of the study.

Chapter II included a review of the literature relative to the historical, philosophical, and general forces of the evolution of sign language into a formal language, which was a pre-requisite to the organization of sign language interpreters.

Chapter III provided the organizational data on the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc., Including its beginnings, development, growth, and precipitious rise in importance and scope.

Chapter IV traced the developing interrelationships that occurred as social forces caused a sign language upheaval and subsequent side effects.

Chapter V completed the study with a summary and discussion of findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

DEVELOPMENT OF SIGN LANGUAGE: A PREREQUISITE FOR THE ORGANIZATION

Before an organization for sign language interpreters could emerge, gesture language had to develop into an acceptable communal linguistic structure of visual symbols. This language's development, a prerequisite for the organization's development, began with the caveman.

Early Beginnings of Sign Language

In his research articles, Hewes stated that man's first propositional language was gesture, and the gesturing of travelers in foreign countries had phylogentic basis. (156:2). Getz concurred that the language of signs was the natural language of man "for it is the language to which all men instinctively have recourse, when they cannot avail themselves of words." (26:59). Linguistics, such as Hewes, Stokoe, Wescott, and Kendon, promoted the gestural theory of language origins at the Toronto meeting of the American Anthropological Association in December, 1972. (84:1-34, 35-68, 103-124, 181-184).

The papers presented at this meeting resulted in the publication of Language Origins, one of the only books on this subject since 1866 when the Linguistic Society of Paris prohibited the presentation of papers on the origin of language. (84:lv). Once the subject was re-opened in the seventies, articles began to appear such as "The Roots of Language in the Sign Talk of the Deaf," by Bellugi and Kilma in support of the gestural theory. (94).

These linguistical researchers seemed to agree with Siger that symbolic gestures were a step in the order of development to a fully articulated language of signs such as that used in the United States. (226:24). No clear basis existed, remarked Cicourel, for tracing the progressive emergence of sign language from the initial iconic forms of gestural sign systems. (68:310).

A detailed schematicization of the prehistoric neurological restructuring was proferred by Wescott to explain the transition of the manual-visual channel to the phonic-auditory channel. (84:103-113). The much earlier ontogenesis of sign than speech by hearing and deaf children, according to Stokoe, Blanton, and Brooks supported the theory of the primacy of sign language in the evolutionary development of man. (68:65, 255).

Concerning the existence of a gestural protolanguage, Hill, like Cicourel, questioned the "how, why, and when would the shift from gesture to the now dominant oral-aural channel have taken place." Hill argued that deaf sign language was not phylogentic, and theorized, "that its existence suggests primarily that the human language capacity will out even under the most restrictive circumstances." (84:189).

Research linguists, such as Stokoe, McCall, and Schleslinger, announced in the 1960's that gesture language has evolved into sign language in the United States. These researchers deemed American sign language a full language with its own semantic, syntactic, morphological, transformational, and phonologic rules. (236:4, 344:77-78, 68:50). This fulfilled Darwin's prophecy in 1874 stating that there could be no doubt that "a society of dumb men would soon elaborate a language of great complexity." (128:877).

One could assume that deaf individuals communicated by signs since earliest history, for human beings seem to have an imperative need to convey and receive information. Stokoe remarked that since this species emerged, the communication imposed by deafness has resulted in highly developed visual languages. (68:367). Davis and Silverman stated:

> Man's need for communication with his fellow man is possibly his greatest need and the fulfillment of his other needs and desires is largely dependent upon, or at the least greatly facilitated by, his ability to satisfy this basic one. (15:xv).

Bender and Moores found evidence that deaf people used signs in 386 B.C. In a discussion with Herogenes and Cratylus, Socrates commented:

> But answer me this question: If we had neither voice or tongue, and yet wished to manifest things to one another, should we

> not, like those who are at present mute, endeavor to signify our meaning by the hands, head, and other parts of the body. (4:21-22, 52:30).

Although Socrates accepted sign language, the later writings of Aristotle were the ones quoted throughout the recorded history of deaf education. The development of gestures into a structured language may have been hindered by Aristotle. His writings as quoted by Sibscota in 1670 contained a pronouncement that those born deaf become senseless and incapable of reason. (70:15). Giangerco and Giangerco boldly stated, "Aristotle's misconception held the fate of the deaf in its grasp for approximately 2,000 years." (27:3). Bender concurred that the writings of Aristotle were "disastrous to the deaf," but she added that an erroneous translation may have occurred. (4:21). Moores delineated in detail how Aristotle's statement was "taken out of context and was distorted and misinterpreted." (52:29).

This possible misinterpretation was accepted as truth throughout the Middle Ages; no known recorded attempts to educate the deaf population were made for the next twenty centuries. The idea that deaf people were uneducable prevailed as viewed in the historical account of Davis and Silverman: Roman Law (1st Century B.C.) classified them as mentally incompetent; the rabbis of the Talmud (2nd Century B.C.) ranked the deaf with fools and children; and the Justinian Code (6th Century A.D.) excluded them from the rights and obligations of citizenship.

An overview of the education of the deaf was compiled to outline the concurrent development of sign language. Newman said that, "only since the first schools of the deaf were founded, around 200 years ago, could sign language as a conventional means of communication develop." (68:101). The following two sections were summarized from the various recorded histories of deaf education by Bender, Brill, DiCarlo, Giangreco and Giangreco, Moores, and Quigley, unless specified otherwise. (4,10,27,52,276).

The only known development of a formal manual communication system was in monastic communities. Surkis said that the early Benedictine monks developed signing to circumvent their vow of silence. (242:12). In the seventh century, Venerable Bebe recorded three types of manual alphabets that were being used. He also mentioned the miracle of the Bishop John of York teaching a deaf man to speak. The Latin Bibles of the tenth century actually contained pictures of dactylology, but there were no references found concerning the deaf's sign language.

Sign Language as an Educational Tool in Europe

Not until the sixteenth century was Aristotle's theory about the intelligence of deaf persons publicly disputed. The first recorded statement that the deaf could be taught a language was by Rudolf Agricola, in De Inventione Dialectica; published posthumously in 1521. A method to teach deaf individuals by the use of symbols associated with pictures was developed by an Italian physician, Girolamo Cardano (1501-1576). Davis and Silverman wrote that "the concept of an educational Magna Carta for the deaf" was attributed to Cardano. (15:376). Although Cardano's methods were never put to use, his theories were proven correct in that same century. Another significant step, mentioned by Argila, was a physicians' meeting held in Vienna in 1581 at which time it was decided "dumbness" was a result of deafness, not an independent affliction." (88:13).

A Spanish Benedictine monk, Pedro Ponce deLeon (1520-1584) succeeded in teaching several deaf children of noble families to read and write, legally qualifying them to inherit property. The news of this success story was acclaimed widely in 1578. Another Spaniard in 1620, Juan Martin Pablo Bonet, wrote the first book on deaf education, entitled Simplification of Sounds and the Art of Teaching the Dumb to Speak. He devised the one-handed alphabet; basically the same one still used in the United States. In the proceedings of a National Conference on Program Development for and with Deaf People in 1973, it was remarked that this manual alphabet was accepted by the World Federation of the Deaf as the official International Manual Alphabet with only two slight adaptations from the American system. (322:104).

In rapid succession, Dalgarno, De Carrion, Perina, Amman, and others claimed success in teaching their deaf students. Sibscota in 1670 succinctly commented, "It is an absolute mistake to maintain that all that are born deaf, are dumb also." (70:16). Efforts for the education of deaf individuals were confined to children of privileged families as Hodgson remarked, "the spur was still the law of inheritance," throughout the seventeenth century. (36:90). Deafness frequently appeared in royal families, said Surkis, due to intermarriage. (242:12). DiCarlo attributed the definitive writing of Comenius, Bacon, and Locks as providing the necessary theoretical structure for the philosophical basis of public education of the deaf individuals which began in the eighteenth century. (16:18-24).

In 1755, Abbe Charles Michael de L'Eppe of France founded the first public school for deaf persons. He reportedly denied himself fuel in winter to save money to operate his school. Argila extracted a historical note that at the request of Marie Antoinette, King Louis XVI subsidized the school which was the first time a school for the deaf persons received government support. (88:14). This priest's dedication to instructing deaf individuals was to save their souls. L'Epee refined and expanded the gestures of his deaf students into a full language, adapting many gestures that he had observed in Trappist monasteries. Abbe de L'Epee was convinced that deaf education should be based on their natural language of signs; he has been considered the father of modern day sign language.

While L'Epee was writing books on his method, Samuel Heiniche was developing the oral method in Germany. A bitter controversy over the best communication mode began and this debate has continued for two hundred years. Stokoe stated that although in 1783, the Fellows of the Academy of Zurich decided in L'Epee's favor, this official approval of the manual method did not stop the controversy. (238:2).

Sign Language in the United States

French sign language was brought to the United States by Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet in 1816. Gallaudet, an Episcopal minister, attempted to teach his neighbor's deaf daughter without much success in Hartford, Connecticut. By 1815 Dr. Tom Cogswell, the girl's father, had collected contributions to send Gallaudet to Europe to learn the methods of instructing deaf students. The Braidwoods in England were secretive about their oral method and spurned Gallaudet. He met Abbe Roche-Ambroise Cucuron Sicard, who was lecturing in London and Gallaudet went to France with him. Brill commented that if the Braidwoods had welcomed Gallaudet, the development of education in the United States would have been very different. (10:9).

Gallaudet returned, not only with a knowledge of French sign language, but with the first deaf teacher in the United States. This Frenchman, Laurent Clerc, was one of the deaf students of Sicard, the successor of Abbe de L'Epee. Clerc was considered the first sign language teacher. Gallaudet was the father of deaf education in the United States. Through a subscription of funds, the American School for the Deaf was established in Hartford, Connecticut in 1817.

In 1819 Henry Clay successfully introduced a motion to Congress to give 23,000 acres of public land to the American Asylum. This use of tax money initiated the tradition of schools being public responsibility. Pimental reported that this was "the first school for special education of any disability group." (319:65). Murphy commented that this school started the tradition of segregating the handicapped into residential schools. (53:10).

Subsequently, residential schools using the manual method were established through the United States within the next fifty years. One residential school, the Columbia Institute for the Deaf and Dumb, and Blind, became significant. Amos Kendall donated a house and two acres in Washington, D.C. on 16 February 1857. The Institution's superintendent was Edward Miner Gallaudet, the son of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet. On 8 April 1864, Abraham Lincoln signed a bill which established a collegiate department in the Columbia Institution; it was named the National Deaf Mute College, later renamed Gallaudet College.

Croneberg, Baker and Padden stated that these state residential schools played a central role in the dissemination and accelerated growth of American Sign Language. (76:307, 91:2). In the histories on deaf education, it was assumed that American Sign Language was a modified from of L'Epee's French Sign Language. These texts inferred that gradually French Sign Language was expanded and adapted in America to reflect the sociocultural needs of the deaf population. The linguistical research of the 1960's proved Fant's argument that the deaf created their own sign language; it could not have been created by a single person (L'Epee). (139:3).

Cokely indicated that before Gallaudet's return there were approximately two thousand deaf Americans using sign language. He surmised that they were using the sign language of their various native countries, in addition to some adaptations and innovations. Cokely reported that Clerc, in a letter to his Parisian friends, complained that American deaf people were changing and destroying his beautiful French sign language. (336:20).

Like Cokely, Baker and Padden said that common sense dictated that deaf individuals had a language before Gallaudet. (91:3) To strengthen their point, they quoted George Veditz, the president of the National Association of the Deaf in 1904, who said, "as long as we have deaf people, we will have sign language." (91:1). From his extensive research, Woodward referred to the growing body of information that suggested that French sign language was "creolized" with sign language already existing in the United States before 1816. (255:2). These research findings agreed that

French sign language was only one cornerstone of American Sign Language. In 1978 American Sign Language was proclaimed by Riekehof to be "one of the most refined and complete sign systems in the world." (63:6).

Rise of Oral Method

Fifty years after Gallaudet established the tradition of manualism as the main method of instruction in deaf education, the oral method began. Serious questioning of the manual method began in 1844 after Horace Mann and Samuel Howe visited the oral schools for deaf children in Germany.

The man responsible for the establishment of an oral school was Gardiner Green Hubbard. His daughter, Mabel, lost her hearing through scarlet fever at the age of five. Mabel later married Alexander Graham Bell, her teacher. When the Massachusetts legislators refused Hubbard's request, John Clarke who was becoming deaf donated the money. The purpose of the school was stated as for the deafened and hard of hearing children to help them retain their speech. In this book, Hubbard cited a principal of a manual method school who spoke before the Joint Special Committee of the Massachusetts Legislature:

> We cannot make them (the deaf-born) understand the use of vocal language, with its articulation, its emphasis, its point. It has never been done. It never can be done. (37:9).

The data pinpointed as the beginning of the communication controversy in the United States was 1867; two exclusively oral schools, the Clark School for the Deaf and the Lexington School for the Deaf, were established. The ascendancy of the oral method may be partially traced to the International Congress on Deafness in Milan, Italy in 1880, at which a resolution was passed stating that manual communication hurt speech. The distinction, made before the Massachusetts Legislature, between the need for the manual method with the prelingually deaf and the oral method for the deafened and hard of hearing became blurred.

Alexander Graham Bell, an advocate of the oral method, experimented with sound amplification to aid his deaf mother and his deaf wife. These experiments led to the invention of the telephone in 1876; ironically, it became the bane of a deaf citizen's existence. The Alessandro Volta Prize money awarded to Bell for his invention was used to establish the Bureau for the Increase and Diffusion of Knowledge Relating to the Deaf in 1887. This organization was renamed The Volta Bureau, the primary information source of the oral method. Argila noted that Alexander Bell who has been called a great friend of the deaf was not. Bell advocated laws to prevent marriage between the congenitally deaf. He feared schools and organizations which brought deaf together in groups for they would develop their own language. (88:13).

Furth wrote that when oralism became official educational policy at the turn of the century, the deaf community, who were allowed no voice in the development of the policy, stated defiantly: "Whoever is against the use of a visual manual mode of communication is not a friend of deaf people." (24:40). This plea was historically ignored as evidenced by the reports of Davis, Silverman, and Moores that by the late 1960's, eighty-five percent of the children enrolled in schools for the deaf were instructed exclusively by the oral method of communication. (15:391, 185:45). Moores qualified this statement by adding that with the "failures", the older students, in residential schools sign language was allowed. (185:40).

Certain theories in the literature began to explain the willing acceptance of the oral method for all hearing-impaired children, although its originating purpose was to retain the oral skills of postlingually deaf and deafened children.

Prelingual, Now Postlingual

One main theory for rapid growth and predominance of the oral method some eighty years ago has been chronicled by Furth, Brill, Bolton, Bender and Denton. (23:208, 10:4, 8:2, 4:190, 130:36). The early American deaf population was composed primarily of postlingually deafened individuals who had already achieved some linguistic competence, so it made sense to insist so strongly on learning lip-reading and preserving speech. Their investigations also showed that more than ninety-five percent of deaf children of primary school age today were either born deaf or were deafened before the age of two.

The advances of medical science since the 1940's has decreased markedly the proportion of children becoming deafened from diseases, however, this same medical progress has saved many more that would not have survived thirty years ago. The impact of this factor was summarized by Furth as "The greatest need of the deaf child now is not speech but language, and it is only a distortion of its original purpose that the oral method holds sway as the ordinary and preferred way of acquiring linguistic competence." (24:208).

Educators and Parents Were Hearing

Another theory, supported by the research of Mindel and Vernon, Moores, Markowiez, and Stein was that the oral method was easily compatible with the attitudes of the hearing educators and hearing parents. (51:72-73, 186:98, 176:36, 319:9). Schlesinger summed up this value by commenting that "oral skills are seen by hearing parents as the badge of entry into their world - the world of the hearing." (68:4). As for the educators, a deaf author, Jacobs, succintly commented that naturally the education of the deaf was controlled by the hearing because there were no educated deaf. This author concluded:

> Hearing people who have been in the saddle of authority have placed the greatest emphasis upon molding deaf children into acceptable facsimilies of hearing people, i.e., themselves. (39:40).

Markowiez stated that "the view against signing can be best understood as prejudicial in nature due to the empirically based belief that only speech is language and that thinking is possible only through speech." (176:25). Furth, in his important work entitled, *Thinking Without Language*, added that "the history of the deaf stands out as one exceptionally glaring instance of man's inability to see beyond the confines of his own theoretical assumptions." (23:212). According to Skokoe, this prejudice was two-sided. He commented that "deep down no deaf person really believes that speech *is* language, just as no hearing person believes that signing *is* language." (84:57).

"The grand old army of sign language deprivation", commented Siger, "derives its strength from the modern Northern European aversion for manual display: and from "the notion of vocal oral articulation as an emblem of the soul." (354:5). Stokoe added that those biased against signing saw it as primitive, which by implication was a subhuman mode of communication. (68:57).

Advocates of the theory for the ascendency of oralism based their assumptions on the statistics provided by Birch and Stuckless, Hicks, and Newman that more than ninety percent of all deaf persons are the offspring of hearing parents. (97:458, 158:33, 193:16). Kannapell discovered that the same percentage of educators of the deaf were hearing. (167:14).

Attitudes Toward A Different Language

Battison and Jordon belittled the language attitudes of the American hearing majority culture as involving "ethnocentrism, language chauvinism, and linguistic naivete." (93:63). Gumperz, a sociolinguist, attributed the civil rights movement as the "most important influence upon change of linguistic code." (31:493).

Markowiez applied Gumperz's statement to the striking similarity between the criticisms of sign language and of nonstandard Negro English. (176:24). When attitudes changed towards minorities with its encouragement of different languages and cultures, Furth stated, then scientists decided it appropriate to study the deaf community and linguists took sign language seriously. (23:39). Frisina viewed the socio-political concepts including equalitarian, individual rights, and least restrictive environment as evidence of the acceptance of the salad bowl concept rather than the melting pot. (300:123).

In the Proceedings of the American Instructors for the Deaf in 1975, Costello reported evidence that the lack of success in the education of the deaf stemmed from the prevailing attitudes regarding the linguistic differences of minority groups. He further cited studies which found that Americans have reacted with suspicion toward those using a foreign language, a different dialect, or even a heavy accent. (264:124).

Kannapell compared the deaf community, "a linguistic minority" to foreigners. (168:12). The idea of the deaf person being the foreigner in their own country was explained by Stokoe as "all speakers of oral languages will always be in a sense foreign to one who must listen with eyes, not ears." (238:25). Pimentel added to Stokoe's idea by saying that unlike the immigrant who learns the vernacular, the deaf person remains a foreigner. (319:4). In the proceeding of the Council of Organizations Serving the Deaf, Ross compared the deaf person to a Stranger in a Strange Land, the title of one of Robert Henlein's books. (292:5).

Look Normal

Stokoe supplemented this theory with his declaration that since sign makes deaf persons visible and visibly different, not using it make him appear normal. He observed that "an unreasonably high valuation put upon this effect has worked along with outmoded language theories to keep sign out of schools." (238:17). Parents of deaf children like Spradley and Hewes concurred by adding that they believed in the oral system because we wanted her (him) to look normal. (356:n.p., 57:16). This apparent normality, Rodda and Ortiga stated, has been one of the major difficulties of the hearing impaired. (64:22, 319:87).

Oral Advocacy

Parents were partially absolved from guilt in Vernon and Mindel's work, They Grow In Silence. In the sections, "How the Myth of Oralism's Superiority is Maintained" and "Examining the Depreciation of Sign Language", these authors comment on the threats and intimidation of parents by oralism's adherents if questioned. They examine each of the cliches which have been employed by the oralists to maintain their position. A reference is made to the multitude of "propaganda and patent-medicine testimonials" of the oralists. (51:70-74). Alterman and Fineman criticized these demonstrations of success cases by oralists because the audience was not told that the hearing was lost after speech was acquired, nor were they told the degree of deafness (87:515, 142:110). Pettingill angrily referred to the "myth of normalcy". He cited that he was the "perfect example of what the oralists use to build up the lovely but false picture of the success of their methods," and visitors were never told that he became deaf at eight years old. (350:n.p.).

Lack of Contact with Adult Deaf Population

Another theory for the unchecked advancement of oralism was the educators and parents' lack of contact with the adult deaf, referred to by Stein. (319:13). Schreiber, a deaf leader, concluded that the silence was due to the deaf's fear to demand and maybe provoke the hearing, and then lose the little they received. (223:15). Bonvillian et al delved deeper into the poverty of the communication between the hearing and deaf adults. They found that this was "largely the result of their (the deaf's) failure to master the

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societal language, and their concomitant inability to communicate well with the hearing population." (99:327). Meisegeler counterargued that it was the hearing people's failure to master the deaf's language. (319:19).

Re-Acceptance of Sign Language

Although oralism maintained its position of power for almost one hundred years, sign language survived in spite of those years of opposition and suppression, remarked Bragg, a deaf actor. (104:673). This survival verified Wundt's contention in 1900 that "sign language is a natural product of the drive to express" as quoted by Blanton and Brooks. (68:243).

Falberg at a conference on communication suggested that sign language is the "only extant language which has been passed down from child to child." (339:n.p.). Woodward and Tully stated that deaf children depended on signs to communicate regardless of the official communication practices of the school." (255:24). Others, like Schein, Moores, Bonvillian et al, Schlesinger and Meadow observed the surreptitious use in oral schools by the children, who quickly learned that their language was forbidden. (65:69, 185:168, 99:2, 67:118).

Social and Legislative Forces

By the sixties, society's attitude towards handicapped individuals had progressed through the three distinct stages documented by Frampton and Gall (1955) as quoted by Jones at the Forty-Seventh Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf. In the first period, they were persecuted, put away, mistreated and neglected. The second stage was the non-handicapped became "guardians" who pitied and protected them. The third stage was the acceptance and integration of these handicapped individuals into society. Jones added a fourth stage which emerged in the seventies. The handicapped individuals organized for political action and became militant in their demands for equal rights. (264:519).

The stirrings of change seemed to be repercussions of World War II. The Bibliography of Hearing by Stevens et al in 1955 documented the numerous wartime research articles on hearing aids, ear plugs, effects of noise, audiometric diagnostic equipment, and rehabilitation of aural casualties. DiCarlo wrote that these aural casualties alerted the medical and educational profession, and this new social awareness ultimately aided in identifying the deaf population. (72:46).

The following paragraphs were a summary of the accounting of federal legislation found in Brill, congressional hearing, and government reports, unless noted otherwise. (10, 269, 271, 275).

Federal assistance in the form of legislative and financial support for the rehabilitation of both military and civilian handicapped people began in the fifties through the support of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1954

(Public Law 88-365) was signed into law by President Eisenhower in 1958.

Financial support for research was doubled in 1958 by the impetus of Russia's successful Sputnik which led to the National Defense Education Act of 1958. Morkovin in 1960 reported the Soviet Union's accomplishments in the education of their deaf through the use of fingerspelling. He reported two thousand word vocabularies mastered by the Russian children, as compared to the fifty words of American children of the same age and hearing loss. (188:267-8). This visual-manual mode was adopted by many schools in the United States which Furth recorded as the beginning of the acceptance of deafness in the educational process. (23:38). In a later work, Furth said that it was a sad commentary that the example of Russia was required before American schools changed. (24:207). The strength of the oralist and the impact of this adoption of fingerspelling was attested to by McClure in 1966, "it was professional suicide for an educator to openly favor even fingerspelling as recently as five years ago." (323:301-2).

At a congressional hearing, it was cited that John F. Kennedy and Hubert H. Humphrey, both of whom had handicapped children in their own families, generated interest in extending federal educational assistance to such youngsters. Recruitment and training of teachers of the deaf began in 1961 with the passage of Public Law 87-276. Assistance snowballed through amendments and new laws during President Johnson's term.

In 1963, Public Law 88-164 was enacted which has been considered the birthdate of research for handicapped children in the Office of Education. In addition, Public Law 90-247 supported research training and Public Law 89-105 established comprehensive research and demonstration centers. Brill uncovered the fact that Johnson's personal interest in the handicapped, especially deaf people, was due to his close Texas friend, Congressman Homer Thornberry, who had deaf parentage. (10:83).

In October 1963 Public Law 88-126 authorized the creation of an Advisory Committee on the Education of the Deaf. In March 1964 the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare appointed a committee to study Gallaudet's request for money to expand, which led to a full investigation of the education of the deaf population. The "Babbidge Report" resulting from this investigation was submitted in February 1965. This report began an upheaval of the entire education of the deaf children for it outlined the failure of the existing system.

The arousal of social consciousness in the sixties led the public to recognize the rights of each individual to be a fully participating member of society. Certain legislative acts such as the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Public Law 88-352) assured minorities' greater opportunities. The history of this federal law as a social force in our democracy has not yet been written. In the 1976 edition of the Dictionary of American History, it has been stated:

> As the nation's largest minority, blacks have been the vanguard of efforts to secure individual civil rights, but other large minority groups have also been victims of the same types of discrimination. Unquestionably, the black revolution has had a salutary effect on the struggles of these minorities for the effectuating of the civil rights guaranteed them by the Constitution. (17:56).

A deaf leader, Schreiber, concurred that the "momentum for consumerism was provided by the Black Movement." (223:15). At the convention of the Council of Organizations Serving the Deaf, it was stated that "the war on poverty and passage of antidiscrimination legislation in the sixties marked a significant turning point." (293:32).

One piece of the legislation which eventually accelerated the recognition of sign language was the Vocational Rehabilitation Act Amendments of 1956 (Public Law 89-333). Its implications were abstracted for brevity:

1. New deaf clients because economic need was no longer a requirement

2. Support was extended from six months to eighteen months with the Federal Government's share raised to seventy-five percent

3. New construction of rehabilitation facilities and workshops, and extension and improvement existing projects

4. Interpreter services can be provided without regard to economic need (Section IIa)

In that same year the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (Public Law 89-10) was passed. Titles I, II, III, and V

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of the ESEA had an important role in the education of all handicapped children. The Amendment in 1966, known as Title VI provided for the education of handicapped children in various public school districts. Title VI violated the non-control features of all other federal aid bills and trespassed on state and local responsibility. Healey remarked that the states to meet the federal government's new demands of accountability had to: gather data, change regulations, train personnel, and implement new programs. (300:71).

Over thirty-thousand families began to discover that their children were handicapped due to the rubella epidemic of 1964-1965. Bender, in a survey of case histories, found that the enrollemnt in preschool classes for hearing impaired children tripled by 1967 with over fifty percent connected to pregnancies complicated by the rubella infection. This investigation added that many more of the cases of unknown origin could be of the same etiology. (4:190). The subsequent establishment of the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped in January, 1966, and the formation of the Council of Organizations Serving the Deaf in 1967 was perhaps triggered by this parental concern.

On 30 September 1968, President Johnson signed Public Law 90-538, the Handicapped Children's Early Assistance Act. James J. Gallagher, the Associate Commissioner of the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped was quoted by Bender:

> Public Law 90-538 is a major thrust forward in the areas of helping handicapped children and it is an integral part of the total attack on the needs of the handicapped in this country. (4:191-192).

The social and legislative forces of this period received lavish praise from several writers. "The past decade (1960's) has probably been one of the most glorious in achievements for the deaf...the golden ten years", proclaimed Garrett. (149:23). Brill echoed this sentiment with the comment, "Since the year 1960 U. S. Congress has enacted more constructive legislation to improve facilities and services for handicapped children and youth then ever before in history." (10:58).

Brill cautioned the public that "it seems to be a truism that when a group begins to discuss a problem it first passes resolutions, and only years later does it initiate actual changes." (10:132). Historical evidence concerning the education of the deaf upheld this contention for the actual changes took place in the 1970's after the resolutions of the sixties.

In the later sixties and seventies, successive legislation for the handicapped increased steadily and substantially opportunities for program expansion and innovation. Subsequent legislation provided increasingly generous authorizations for services and program development. This later legislation influenced the opportunities of equality for the deaf population which concurrently influenced the growth of the interpreter organization.

Myths Broken Through Research

The hold of oralism in the United States slowly began to dissipate as researchers gathered a burgeoning body of scientific data to support the oral-plus position. McClure pointed out that "despite the increasing weight of evidence, some educators of the deaf are still afflicted with the Ostrich Syndrome." (178:4). "There is no field of special education that has suffered more from misleading half-truths and propaganda than that of the deaf," declared Getz. (26:60).

"Not Dumb"

Over fifty studies of the intellectual functioning of deaf persons, dating back to the early 1900's, demonstrated that the intelligence of the deaf population was esentially the same as the hearing population. In the sixties the emergence and distribution of non-verbal tests to deaf students conclusively ended that re-occurring question on the part of parents and educators. A comprehensive review of literature concerning these tests and their implications can be found in Vernon's article, "Fifty Years of Research on the Intelligence of Deaf and Hard of Hearing Children," and Moores' Educating the Deaf. (246, 52:129-137).

Those cases where deaf individuals showed inferior performance, Moores clarified that a very real possibility was that the experimenters were unable to communicate the directions effectively. (52:134). Efforts began in the sixties to remove the stigma of deafness implied in the archaic, inaccurate phrase, "deaf and dumb", stated Bill. (10:5). In his paper, Vernon pointed out the double error of the term, dumb, for deaf people have had the physical ability to speak and normal intelligence. (50:15).

Failure of Schools for Deaf People

Since deaf individuals were found to be equal in intellectual functioning to the general population, other explanations were needed for their low educational achievement. The non-partisan, benchmark review of the education of the deaf, the Babbridge Report, was unequivocal in its assertion, that educational programs for deaf people have failed. (276:25). After an individual, thorough investigation of all research on the education of the deaf, Kohl concurred. (42:13). Newman, Moores, and Alterman traced the historic failure of the education of the deaf to the failure to accept sign language. (193:2, 185:45, 87:519). "The record of the sign language deprivers may be the ugliest blot on American education yet," was Siger's conclusion. (354:6).

The Babbridge committee found the median average on the Stanford Achievement Test for deaf school graduates to be grade level 5.9. (276:23). Mindel and Vernon reported the low achievement findings of Boatner and McClure who found that thirty percent of deaf adults were functionally illiterate and sixty percent were third to fifth grade or below;

Wrignstone, Aronow, and Moskowitz concluded that the average reading achievement of sixteen year olds was grade level 3.4. (51:91).

Myklebust found that the seventeen year old deaf person's command of writing was comparable to a hearing child approximately ten years of age. (54:285). A comparison of written samples was done by Moores who concluded that in written language at least, the deaf children of one hundred years ago were superior to those being graduated in the 1970's. He attributed this to the higher percentage of post-lingually deaf. (185:39).

Lip-reading = Guesswork

Another persistent myth concerning deaf individuals was the advantage of early training in speechreading (lip-reading) skills. Koh and Vernon used a sample population from the John Tracy Clinic in Los Angeles, which has had an international reputation for its success. It was found that the best lipreaders were the hearing people who never had a lesson in lip-reading. These researchers proved that a language base to make guesses was necessary to lip-read because forty to sixty percent of all words are homophoneous. This showed that lip-reading was approximately fifty percent guesswork, not based on training or intelligence. (170:569-574). Meyer commented from an earlier research project that "there is not a single word in the normally spoken English language which can be identified by pure lip-reading." (183:91). "To insist on speech only, so much of which is not visible, is to deprive them of life," reiterated Norris et al. (316:6).

Speech Training, Hearing Aids, and Writing Notes

The breaking of three more myths seemed to advance the acceptance of sign language. Miller et al stated that "speech for a person born deaf will never be normal and much of it will not be intelligible." (50:18). The overall oral communication skills of most adult deaf have not proven to be functional, said Brill and Pettingill. (285:12, 350:n.p.). Schlesinger and Meadow found only four percent of deaf adults to be proficient speakers or speech readers. (67:50). Schiller referred to the reason for this failure quoting a teacher who said that speech training was comparable to "sitting in a soundproof booth trying to learn Japanese from an instructor on the other side of the window, who doesn't know a word of English." (316:5). Other deaf people with understandable speech have refused to speak because of the reactions of the normal hearing society to his phonation, claimed Cutler. (32:55).

In spite of the vast technological advance in hearing aids, persons involved in deafness had to accept the harsh fact, said Vernon and Stein, that these devices only amplified sounds and did not clarify sounds, allowing the deaf person to comprehend, which was another purported myth. (50:31, 319:11).

Siger bluntly said, "The hearing aid is just what it says, an aid for the hearing. It will not aid deaf ears." (354:5).

Those not well-educated in the far-reaching implications of pre-lingual deafness have assumed, said DuBow, that an exchange of notes replaced the need for interpreters. In his testimony before Congress, DuBow stated that due to severe deficiencies in language "many deaf people are unable to read and write well enough to communicate effectively through an exchange of notes." (260:599). Ingram referred to written communication as "cumbersome, confusing, and inadequate" and it tended "to impede rather than promote effective communication." (341:3).

Language Learning

Only a maximum of twelve percent of deaf pupils achieved linguistic competence, discovered Furth. He qualified this statistic that this number may be somewhat inflated by the presence of pupils in the norming sample who had lost their hearing after the acquisition of language, or who were not profoundly deaf. (23:14). Markowiez quoted from a speech given by Stokoe in 1963:

> When we look at literally tons of evidence... just one conclusion is to be drawn. If one objective of our profession is to teach the language of his culture to the deaf child, we have failed. Looking only at the top 10th of the products of our teaching of the deaf child, we can hardly see that we have tried. The language patterns of the other 90 percent hardly bear looking at. (176:19).

Research Comparing Oral and Manual Backgrounds

The focus of research on the intelligence and achievement levels of the deaf population shifted to comparisons of children from oral vs. manual backgrounds. Levine and Weiss et al commented that this research had a strong impact on the field and on related research, with increasing numbers of reports taking manual positions. (300:30, 82:9). Levine explained that with this shift in research emphasis, the role of the investigator shifted to "becoming active participants in implementing the findings of their studies" which have been used as an "advocacy weapon." The reason given by Levine for the leading investigators' involvement was that most of them had worked closely with the deaf at one time or another. These investigators, Furth and Vernon in particular, disseminated their research finding, positions, and implications, in many different professional journals representing a vast variety of disciplines. (300:31).

This comparative research and the active dissemination of its findings had significant implications for broader applications. On the basis of the findings, recommendations were made for the inclusion of the manual method in the education of deaf individuals. The preliminary findings which began the comparative research were that the oral method had not helped the achievement level, the lip-reading and speech skills, nor the linguistical competence of the deaf students. Weiss et al commented that "for more than 100 years emotion has served as a substitute for research in the education of the deaf," and "recent research...has had a great and growing impact on the field." (82:6,9).

Superiority of Deaf Children of Deaf Parents

Markowicz, Mindel and Vernon, and Siger cited (Montgomery, 1966; Quigley and Frisina, 1961; Quigley, 1969; Stuckless and Birch, 1966; Denton, 1969; Hester, 1964) in three separate surveys of the research. Their analysis of data showed that children with early manual communication were more advanced when they entered school and maintained this advantage throughout school. These studies indicated that in comparison with the oral-only children, the former had a better command of language, reading, writing, and lip-reading. No statistical support was found that manual communication was detrimental to speech. In most of the studies, the early manual group showed higher achievement levels and better psychological adjustment. (176:21, 51:75-76, 226:27).

Another researcher, Meadow, found the same results and concluded that this data disproved the contention at "the heart of oralist argument which forbids the use of manual communication with young deaf children." The deaf children of deaf parents were found by Meadow to be superior in "intellectual functioning, social functioning, maturity, independence, and communicative competence in written, spoken, expressive, and receptive language." (179:41).

A research study by Brill found that deaf children of hearing parents had an average IQ of 104 on the Wechsler Performance Test as compared with an average IQ of 113 for deaf children of deaf parents. (107:4). Stevenson, Schlesinger and Meadow's studies found that four times as many students from the early manual group went to college as from the oral group. (233:3, 67:116). The following insight was supplied by Moores:

> Given the higher socio-economic levels, the more nearly adequate linguistic and speech skills and the higher academic attainments to be found in hearing families--in addition to preschool educational and speech training for children of hearing parents--the educational, social, and communicative superiority of deaf children with deaf parents takes on added significance. (186:124).

Levine referred to these comparisons as "the stir-creating studies of the past decade (1960)." (68:29). The literature on these studies of deaf children of deaf parents has implied that the reason for the higher levels of performance in the many social-educational areas was the early communication in the home. Anderson supplied a cautionary note with his comment that the early acceptance by the deaf parents could have been the main contributing factor. (319:22). Schlesinger postulated that this greater acceptance and greater expectation of the deaf child fostered the high academic achievement and psychological health. (68:66).

Psychological Effects of Language Deprivation

The Michael Reese Hospital group in 1966 added their voices to the objections to the prevailing tradition in deaf education, reported Mindel. In some of their patients, they discovered positive correlations between early language deprivation due to strict oral education and later social and emotional problems. (316:83). Robinson noticed the same correlation at St. Elizabeth's Hospital in Washington, D.C. in 1972. (319:28). Moores, Vernon and Mindel related in detail the psychological implications of the lack of communication between a deaf child and his family. (52:99-103, 51:64-65). Kannapell had this perception that "to deny ASL as the language of the deaf person is to deny him as a person." (168:1976). Furth agreed that there seemed to be no other way for parents to demonstrate that they accept him on his own terms. (24:211). In Deafness and Learning: A Psycho-Social Approach, the priorities outlined by Furth were "...first, acceptance of the deaf person and his way of life; second, the thinking and feeling self; third, communication; fourth, language (English); and fifth, speech." (24:100).

Confronted with this harsh reality of these broken myths, parents and educators developed a sense of readiness to accept sign language as a necessary mode of communication. At the 1975 Convention of American Instructors for the Deaf Costello and Root said that this research with its "embarrassing data" challenged the traditional policies of education of the deaf. (264:124). "The oralist viewpoint has dominated, but for reasons founded on value judgements rather than scientifically derived information," remarked Alterman. (87:514). Stuckless commented that the collective weight of the findings supported the use of early manual communication, he criticized these studies as being "conducted on an 'ex post facto' rather than a longitudinal basis." (300:97). Whereas Rodda ended his critique of the research studies of the sixties with the remark that "at least supporters of total communication have offered studies that can be methodologically criticized, supporters of oral methods have not." (353:14).

Behind the spurt of research, activity was the fundamental change in attitudes and growth of interprofessional relationships. The best solution to the failure of deaf education, Oyer said, was "an organized team approach." (56:50). Hoag and Steele identified the single major influence for change in the 1960's as the 1964 Virginia Beach Conference. This conference was the first time in the history of the education of the deaf that representatives of virtually all the diversified interests in the field met and focused on a common problem. (300:50).

Tully remarked that a very important change that occurred during the 1960's was the slow but gradual trend towards professionals working with rather than for deaf people. (316:74).

Prickett and Hunt in their article, "Education of the Deaf--The Next Ten Years," said this was the beginning of a united front to secure legislation and other benefits for the hearing-impaired, whereas previously the tradition had been many splinter groups with parochial viewpoints. (200:365-366).

Researchers were able to study the methodologies used by pre-schools, for by the sixties some experimental manually-oriented pre-schools had come into existence. Four major studies (Craig, 1964; Vernon and Koh, 1972; McCroskey, 1968; and Phillips, 1963) concerning oral pre-school training were reviewed by Rodda. Three studies showed that any effects of oral training were lost in the later years of the child's school life. (464:15). Pre-schools which offered early manual communication training were researched by Brill. He found a sharp contrast in the language skills of the manually trained and the orally trained students. The manually trained students mastered three-hundred and fifty words in a year compared to the twenty words in a strictly oral setting. (10:192).

In a study of a deaf child of hearing parents, Schlesinger and Meadow found that through the use of signs by the parents and teachers the three year old child acquired a vocabulary of over six-hundred signs. According to these researchers, the amount of spoken English also increased as the child acquired sign language. (67:204). These studies, commented Alterman, showed the weakness of the oralists' assumption about the negative influence of the use of another or "inferior" language. (87:519).

Stokoe made a powerful comparison using the results of a study by Gardner and Gardner. He said:

> Washoe, a four year old chimpanzee's vocabulary of one hundred signs of ASL is just twice as great as the English vicabulary expected of a deaf child twice her age in a school where communication is restricted to speechreading and speech. (75:6).

Concept of Visibility

Several authors suggested that a sharper awareness of sign language was caused by the actual experiencing of the pedagogical failure of deaf students, rather than solely the mental awareness. Jones and Murphy referred to this as the "concept of visibility." These writers remarked that the initiation of day classes for the deaf offered high visibility and marked the acceptance into the local school system of the handicapped. These writers added that in the beginning there were special education classes, an alternative model of integrated education, then the movement of the seventies towards complete integration. (164:613).

This movement was aided by Title VI monies allocated in 1966 for this purpose. The problems of communication of this "invisible" handicap became visible to the community when the majority of deaf children became involved in the thrust towards community-centered education, with the child remaining in the home, rather than in segregated residential schools.

Brill depicted this rapid change in his review of annual statistics. He found that in 1900 over ninety percent of deaf children were in public residential schools, whereas in 1966 there were only fifty-one percent, and in 1973 only thirty-nine percent. (10:6). Rawlings and Trybus found that by 1974-5 only thirty-two percent of the deaf students were in residential schools. (317:101). In 1978 Moores said that the residential school enrollment has been declining steadily. (52:258). This accelerated movement of deaf children out of the residential school into day schools and/or classes subsequently aided in the visibility of the deaf, therefore sign language, ascertained Denton. (130:37).

The Recommended Organizational Policies in the Education of the Deaf cited that this change was fundamentally one characterized by the philosophies that education should be carried on by the local community, children should live at home, and government officials responding to this public pressure, often seeing the cost efficiency aspect. (270:3-4). This movement seemed to be influenced by the wealth of research findings which accrued from studies of the culturally disadvantaged concerning the lack of early stimulation in the home life, probed Moores. (185:38).

The decisions of two court cases were discussed by Moores as a contributing factor to community-centered education. The Pennsylvania Association for Retarded remarked that this recognition of Ameslan as a formal language bestowed "unmistakable prestige." (237:113).

After oral programs were demonstrated to be "ineffectual and anachronistic" in the words of Vernon, the one hundred years of the oralists' reign ended, and the non-handicapped people allowed sign language in deaf education. (248:2). Mindel and Vernon in their book, They Grow In Silence, reported that an analogous situation existed for the blind who fought for the use of braille for over one hundred years. The sighted people ignored the wishes of the blind, saying that they must read raised printed alphabet letters. (51:99). The research of the sixties had proven L'Epee's method of educating the deaf with the use of sing language to be scientifically sound.

De L'Epee in the 1900's had stated optimistically that

> the instruction of the deaf is not at all as difficult as one would ordinarily suppose. It is concerned only with making to enter through their eyes into their mind what would ordinarily enter in through the ears. (4:82).

As the deaf population became more educated, organized, and vocal in the seventies, the non-handicapped professionals paid attention to their diametric opposition to oralism. Markowiez quoted the National Association of the Deaf's statement on the feeling of the deaf adults:

> The many intelligent deaf who are confused and helpless in classes where oral instruction and nothing else is allowed resent the

> fact that their education is restricted in this way. Through no fault of their own they have been denied all the workable types of communication which should be open to them...Time which could have been well invested in acquiring knowledge has been wasted in forcing children to concentrate on the unreliable arts of speech and lip-reading. (176:22).

The Chief of the Communication Disorders Branch of the Rehabilitation Services Administration, Boyce Williams, a deaf man, felt that there was no surprise concerning the illiteracy of the deaf people who endured "ten to fifteen years of this futile, tragic guessing contest." (285:15). Vernon stated his solution:

> The key to coping with deafness is communication, communication that deals with the reality of deafness. This means total communication, involving the language of signs, speech, fingerspelling, lip-reading, hearing aids, reading and writing, not a denial of deafness which is what oralism only is." (50:21).

According to Battison and Jordon, the United States has a truly national sign language which they attributed to:

> The public and institutional acceptance of signs has a standardizing influence, since people communicate more freely under these conditions and tend to interact over social and regional differences and in a greater variety of situations. (93:66).

The past inadequate education had "created the paradoxical state of complacence among the shortchanged deaf adults," wrote Jacobs, a deaf author. (39:44). As the deaf community became more educated, the field of deaf education changed. Both Brill and Garretson noted that it was a deaf educator and parent of two deaf children, Roy K. Holcomb, who achieved the formal acceptance of total communication as the philosophy of the school. (10:272, 316:89).

This philosophy has been viewed as the solution to the oral-manual controversy. Adler and Williams commented that "the sharp reversal of this national psychosis" concerning attitudes toward sign language has occurred. This attitudinal change "is borne out by the way total communication has swept the country" and "further evidence lies in the scores of institutions of higher education which now give credit for sign language courses." (32:22). The success of the total communication movement both in the United States and its ready acceptance in many foreign countries reflected the feelings of frustration of educators and parents who have tried the totally oral way, according to Fellendorf. (300:45).

Total communication meant using every means possible to get a message across, but in 1972 Schlesinger and Meadow observed that it generally stood for "the simultaneous use of oral and manual language." (222:126). In 1976, evidence was gathered by Gustason, Jordon, and Rosen that more than sixty-four percent of reporting elementary and secondary public school classes used total communication. (151:527).

The extent of sign language's "re-discovered" acceptability was acknowledged by this comment in the mid-seventies by Austin that "total communication no longer seemed to be a controversial issue, but rather an accepted fact and practice."

(90:13). These attitudinal changes caused a developing respect for the deaf community. People began to learn sign language for parental or professional purposes; others began to employ sign language interpreters.

The literature of the seventies seemed to depict the embracement of the concepts proferred in a television interview of Norwegian deaf psychiatrist, Terje Basilier, as quoted by Schlesinger et al:

> When I accept another person's language I have accepted the person...When I reject a language, I have rejected the person because the language is part of ourselves ...When I accept the sign language, I accept the deaf, and it is important to bear in mind that the deaf have a right to be deaf. (68:315).

In chapter two the concurrent development of sign language with the education of deaf persons was chronicled. A brief compendium of Western European's early attempts to educate deaf individuals was given to outline their influence on American sign language. The reasons for the growth, suppression, and re-acceptance of sign language were emphasized. Social and legislative forces were analyzed to depict the attitudinal changes which accelerated the development and acceptance of this language. This recognition and subsequent approval of sign language as a language was vital to the development and precipitous growth of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. which was discussed in chapter three.

CHAPTER III

REGISTRY OF INTERPRETERS FOR THE DEAF, INC.

Early Communication "Helpers"

In the early beginnings of interpreting, only hearing people who associated with the deaf population were able to help the deaf people communicate.

Who Helped - Why and When

The first "interpreters" were children of deaf parents, religious personnel, and some educators, commented Youngs. (256:50). "These individual representatives of society concerned themselves--charitably and sympathetically, or else authoritively and paternalistically--with the well-being of these handicapped people," stated Huttinger in My Eyes are My Ears. (58:115).

Jacobs, Lupson, and Switzer referred to the missionary frame of reference regarding the help that deaf persons received. (39:41, 363, 294:iv). At the Assembly of God Workshop, Williams mentioned that "outside of the religious groups, ...interpreting for the deaf has been a kind of a stepchild. It has never had professional status." (281:31). Church workers at the Assembly of God Workshop and the Baptist Workshops were warned of the danger of satisfying their own ego at the expense of the deaf person's independence. (281:118, 294:90).

According to Rodda:

> The religious influence surrounding welfare work with the deaf and workers with the deaf is particularly prominent, although in the last decade (1960's) there has tended to be a movement away from this. (64:39).

This accounting of the history of interpreting as a communicative aid has been based on a paragraph from Pimental's article, "Interpreting Services for Deaf People." He said that "in the United States the concept of interpreting as a distinctly unique communication service to deaf people dates almost from the beginning of education of the deaf in 1817." His justifications for this statement was that at least for the older students in most residential schools some form of manual communication was used. Since the vast majority of deaf people were educated in residential schools through the middle 1940's, it was customary to find a few teachers or administrators interpreting at religious programs, field trips, and school assemblies. Adult deaf people living in sufficient numbers in a city had developed the concept of utilizing interpreters for special events from the long tradition of interpreting usage in the educational setting. Churches serving deaf citizens had utilized sign language through the years, so clergymen were frequently the interpreters utilized. (199:113).

The literature concerning deaf people, prior to the 1950's, seldom mentioned any interaction with the world outside of the educational system. The deaf minority remained "silent", stated Youngs, unless situationally forced to enlist the aid of a relative, clergyman, or friend who often "talked" for them. (256:54). Interpreting services outside of church services were limited to emergency situations such as courtrooms and medical crisis, added Pimentel. (119:114).

Roberts and Pimentel commented that in the past too many well-meaning people "interpreted" for deaf people because they knew sign language and/or fingerspelling. These philanthropic people unintentionally often harmed more than helped. (211:46, 199:114). "Oftentimes their good intentions result in a denial of civil rights and cause mental anguish," remarked Youngs. (256:50). The two most damaging attitudes prevalent in working with deaf persons, according to Mehan, have been pity and paternalism. (322:4). Tipton echoed this sentiment and added that this "do-gooder" attitude was downgrading. (244:13).

Augmented Need

Pimentel commented that in the late 1950's there was an emerging recognition of the importance of interpreting services and "the few available and competent interpreters for deaf people suddenly found their services in great demand." (199:114).

The truth of Vernon's remark that "the major handicap of deafness is the resulting impairment of communication" became more obvious as the complexity and urbanization of our society augmented the frequency and necessity of communication. (50:17). "In today's busy and time demanding world," wrote Pimentel, "efficient means of communication is a basic necessity 'and in terms for the deaf' this means provision of interpreting services." (199:114). An increased dependency on auditory sources for information such as the phonograph, telegraph, telephone, and television was noted by Parana. (288:39).

The receptive and expressive communication problems of this disabled group began to hinder them in employment since the past stereotyped jobs for deaf individuals were diminishing. The employment situation was presented by Vernon as bleak for five-sixths of deaf adults who were manual laborers, as contrasted to one-half of the normal population. Vernon quoted the American Federationist, the official publication of AFL-CIO, which pointed out that automation was eliminating many of the manual jobs which the overwhelming majority of deaf people have worked in the past. (277:18). In another article in Listen to the Sounds of Deafness, Vernon quoted John A. Sessions, a labor authority of AFL-CIO, who cautioned that "if present trends are not reversed, within ten years unemployment among deaf people will approximate 70% and most of the remaining 30% will be dead-ended in unskilled menial jobs." (50:26).

To reverse the danger of the deaf people becoming early victims of a changing occupational outlook, the Babbidge Report of 1965 and the National Conference on the Education of the Deaf in 1967 recommended that the full range of post-secondary and adult education programs of the general population be made available to the deaf population. (276:43, 275:115).

Legislation was the catalyst for the growth of the National Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc., which was a new organization founded in 1964.

The concept of post-secondary training for deaf individuals through the services of an interpreter was only possible through the breaking of myths and the re-acceptance of sign language as an educational tool in the 1960's. Two successful deaf individuals, McDonald and Fleischer, at a Congressional hearing in 1977 cited that the use of interpreters as a communication modality began to break the long standing undereducation and subsequent underemployment of the deaf population. (262:120-121).

A Neophyte Organization

Although Hewes in his article, "Gesture Language in Culture Contact", traced the use of sign language interpreters from the Greeks in 400 B.C. to Columbus in 1492, sign language interpreting did not become a recognized occupational field until 1964. (156:5). The whole area of foreign language "is a very young profession," commented Reigerberg. This writer stated that "although the need for interpreters has been a historical constant, the professional corps was really initiated with the establishment of the League of Nations (1920)." (296:3).

Over forty years later, sign language interpreters formed a professional corps with the establishment of its national organization in 1964. One can conjecture that before sign language interpreting could be recognized as an occupational field, sign language had to be recognized as a language which occurred in the early sixties.

Support for this conjecture was only found in a speech to set up a National Interpreter Organization, delivered by Pimentel at the First International Conference on Interpreting in 1975. He described to delegates from other countries the conditions essential for the establishment of an organization like the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. Pimentel remarked that "another nation, or any nation, is not ready for an interpreter organization if that nation does not have a sign language that is widely used in that country." A nation's readiness also depended on sufficient uniformity in the sign language and a national organization of the deaf people. (308:17-18).

In the organization's newsletter, Interprenews, the early development of this new occupational field was described:

> Interpreting, a service which was often completely non-existent or sorely incompetent in the past, is now through the struggling existence of the National Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, becoming a fast growing new profession. (282:n.p.).

The first organization of a group of communication "helpers" occurred in Dallas, Texas on November 16, 1963. The Texas Society of Interpreters for the Deaf was founded by twenty-five members with the aim to improve and promote interpreting services for the deaf population. Historical facts were compiled from the accountings of the organization's workshops, convention proceedings, and newsletters. (267, 278, 279, 282, 296, 297, 299, 302, 308, 320, 326, 328).

Founding of the National Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc.

In Muncie, Indiana at Ball State Teachers College, 14-17 June 1964, a workshop comprised of communication "helpers" was held. This meeting was financially supported by the Rehabilitation Services Administration. Newman credited Mary Elizabeth Switzer, the Commissioner of Vocational Rehabilitation Administration, as the person "who foresaw the now well-proven impact of professional interpreting on the economic, social and emotional welfare of deaf people." (278:vii).

During this workshop, Dr. Edgar L. Lowell suggested the establishment of a national registry of interpreters. The group agreed and a organization, named the National

Registry of Professional Interpreters and Translators for the Deaf, was founded. The establishment of this organization, stated Schein, institutionalized the significant change in interpreting "from a favor granted by a few knowledgable hearing people to a recognized right of deaf people performed by qualified persons." (216:190).

DiPietro commented that this first workshop revealed that interpreting had become increasingly important in the lives of deaf people, but its quality and the number of capable, conscientious interpreters showed no corresponding upswing. (132:9). At this first workshop, the organizational framework was accomplished: (1) The purpose of the organization was to promote recruiting and training of more interpreters and to maintain a list of qualified persons. (2) A code of ethics was taken under consideration for development and for presentation at a later date. (3) Membership requirements were established and officers were elected; the first president was Kenneth Huff, the Superintendent of the Wisconsin School for the Deaf.

Development through Workshops

With each succeeding workshop, the structure, goals and scope of this organization grew more detailed. On 28-29 January 1965 in Washington, D.C. a second meeting on interpreting was held. The name of the organization was changed to Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf. It has become further known as RID, and has been referred to as such throughout this paper. Another name change was discussed at the 1978 convention because members argued that the phrase "for the deaf" was a misnomer. Interpreting in sign language for deaf people was only one-half of the occupation; reverse interpreting for the non-handicapped population was the most difficult part. Reverse interpretint meant vocalizing in correct English structure the American sign language being viewed.

At the Follow-Up Workshop in 1965 a constitution was approved and the purposes were defined as:

1. To prepare, maintain, and distribute a registry of accredited interpreters and translators for deaf people.
2. To establish certification standards for qualified interpreters and translators.
3. To recruit qualified interpreters and translators.
4. To work for the advancement and training of qualified interpreters and translators.
5. To prepare literature dealing with methodology and the problems of interpreting and translating.
6. To prepare a guideline of terminology applicable to the various aspects of interpreting and translating.
7. To work within the framework of organizations of the deaf insofar as possible.
8. To adopt and promote a code of ethics.

The manual entitled, Interpreting for Deaf People has been the main reference source for the following data. (278). This general training manual on interpreting, proposed at the second meeting, resulted from the third workshop, sponsored by the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration. This workshop held at the Governor Baxter State School for the Deaf in Maine, 7-27 July 1965 also resulted in an approved Code of Ethics, provided in Appendix A. This code was written by Lottie Riekehof, a committee of one.

Tipton stated that the Code of Ethics "constituted a milestone in the beginnings of professionalization of interpreting for deaf people." (244:10). Smith viewed the code as the clear establishment of the interpreters' status as a profession. (316:20). In the July 1965 Follow-Up Workshop proceedings, the group discussed that "because of the unique position of the interpreter, ethics must play a vital role in standards appropriate for this important responsibility." (279:28). This Code of Ethics was the first step of the organization to eliminate the unethical practices of the communication "helpers" of the past. It was argued in 1974 by Tipton that the code has not been enforceable, which has been its major weakness. (244:14). In the forward of this workshop's proceedings, Williams and Gough said that the vital function of interpreting was moving "from limbo to a position of prestige and increased value." They further stated that, "the economic, social, and emotional benefits to be derived there from by the deaf and by the hearing community as a whole can scarcely be questioned." (279:5).

The Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. was ready organizationally, not quantatively, for the reverberating legislation in 1965. The legislation led to the inclusion of the handicapped in the movement of minorities towards equal rights. Adler remarked that the basic aim of RID was to make viable the Vocational Rehabilitation Act Amendments of 1965 (Public Law 89:333, Section IIa) which specifically authorized interpreting as a case service for deaf clients in the vocational rehabilitation process. (271:51). Referring to this law, at the Assembly of God Workshop, Williams announced "therefore, it is important that we get this area professionalized and standardized." (281:31). High hopes were proclaimed by Gough and Williams in 1965 that

> new roles for deaf men and women in all walks of life can emerge from these activities if vigorously pursued by the new-born dynamic professional organization, the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf. (279:v).

In summer 1966, the "Workshop To Activate Interpreting Services" was held in San Francisco, Pimentel outlined this meeting's purpose as:

> To reassess the status of interpreter services, and to accelerate the development of interpreter personnel in an attempt to keep up with the personnel needs generated by continuing expansion of new programs and projects incorporating various kinds of rehabilitation services for deaf people. (199:117).

The workshop produced a proposal for a national office to be supported by the Social and Rehabilitation Services Department, stated DiPietro. She said that furthermore, state chapters were formed to work out the "grassroots" aspects of national policy. (132:9). The consensus of opinion at the workshop was that the Executive Board of RID should establish a board of examiners who shall determine minimal examination requirements.

From a small nucleus of three hundred members in 1964, the membership tripled by 1967. An acute shortage still existed for approximately one-thousand members were to serve a deaf population of five hundred thousand. After the first three years of organizational operation on a voluntary, quasi-professional basis, RID received through the National Association of the Deaf, a seven year grant from Rehabilitation Services Administration. These monies were used for services such as set up a national office in Washington, D.C.; to publish a registry; and to disseminate public information.

The Vocational Rehabilitation Administration encouraged and supported the development of this organization and its publications, in the belief that "it will help reduce the handicapping aspects of deafness." (278:v). From the beginning of the organization, the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration has been "the biggest purchaser of interpreting services," stated Adler, for "without interpreters, really, the (rehabilitation) work could not go on." (308:48).

Movement Towards Professionalism

As an occupational field, this neo-profession was still one of voluntarism and part-time jobs. At a Baptist Workshop, Davis said that "in 99.44% of the cases the interpreter does all of the interpreting without pay, and too many times, to the neglect of his family." (294:59). In 1969, Adler commented that interpreting, "has been a long unrecognized art", and "the eventual status of interpreting as a professional calling would be very helpful to deaf people." (280:11).

The literature depicted little activity on the part of the national organization between 1967-1970. King hypothesized that "during that period the word about interpreting as a profession and the organization was being disseminated, and wherever the seeds fell on fertile ground a state chapter grew." (361). According to Switzer, the Vietnam war and racial riots preoccupied the Americans, but great strides were made in the seventies "to heal the great sores." (288:17-18).

In the 1970's interpreters began the transition from the voluntarism of the past to a role that resembled professionalism in every possible way, said Culton. (320:175). Johns remarked that "before this decade (1970's) interpreting as a professional specialty was not seriously considered. (310:26). The efforts to develop interpreting as a separate profession, stated Ingram, was due to the interpreters' awareness of the need to become highly skilled, and specially trained to meet the new demands of complex interpreting situations. (308:25).

In his article, "Professional or Amateur", Johns outlined the four areas necessary to be recognized as professionals. These areas were: (1) area of scientific knowledge; (2) careful and rigorous training; (3) humanitarian function toward mankind; and (4) certification system controlled by members. (310:2).

The members of RID became actively involved in the upgrading and development of their organization in the 1970's as interpreting became a full-time paying occupation. RID began to fulfill the requirements of a profession as outlined by Johns. Fant commented:

> Such recent developments as the RID's inauguration of an interpreter evaluation program, the establishment of interpreter training programs, and research into the skills and attitudes of good interpreters indicate that we may be on the threshold of a new era. (138:44).

Organizational changes which augmented professionalism began at the first convention of RID. This convention was hosted on 21-24 July 1970 in Delavan, Wisconsin, by the first president of RID, Kenneth Huff. DiPietro, the editor, stated that the publication of the proceedings marked an important point in the development of the organization; it provided tangible evidence of response by RID and its members to their increasing responsibilities.

In the introduction to the proceedings, Pimentel as the Executive Director discussed the numerous breakthroughs such as the utilization of interpreters in the integration of deaf individuals into schools and in the provision of services by the state vocational rehabilitation agencies. Pimentel further commented that by 1970 the RID's membership exceeded twelve hundred with another one thousand belonging to thirty state chapters located in twenty-seven states. (296:vii). In his report he added that "an important factor that parallels the growth of our membership is the extent to which interpreters are being utilized." (296:107).

The subject areas of the various speakers delineated the emerging professional attitude of the members. Examples to depict this trend were: a member of TAALS, the American Association of Language Specialists, spoke on the profession of foreign language interpreters; the New York University Curriculum Project on Interpreter Training; Professionalization, Interpreter Evaluation; and a suggested fee schedule.

The members reiterated that RID was established for the purpose of providing nationwide public access to a pool of qualified interpreters. To achieve this, combined with a recent, continuing increase in employment opportunities for interpreters, the members expressed an acute concern for standards and training programs. The major ramifications of the discussions of this convention occurred at the following biennial convention.

The impetus led to a conference on the Preparation of Personnel in the Field of Interpreting held 28-30 March 1972 in Washington, D.C. The participants from state RID chapters began the process of professionalizing the work of interpreters. The conference resulted in ideas for the development of a functioning program for training interpreters, a plan for evaluating the skills and knowledge pertinent to the field, and a scheme for awarding certificates to those interpreters meeting the standards of performance. (287).

Certification and Its Importance

The second RID convention was hosted by the Southern California Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf in Long Beach, California. The most significant outcome of this meeting on the 14-17 August 1972 was the decision to conduct a national evaluation of its members.

Prior to this decision, research had been conducted as to other organizations' evaluation and certification of its members. For the past four years, the Texas Society of Interpreters for the Deaf had implemented a local evaluation system. The Southern California Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. utilized, modified, and expanded the evaluation information and procedures obtained from the Texas chapter. The evaluation model of the Southern California RID chapter operated for two years as a pilot project for RID.

The importance of evaluation began to ferment as the members of the Registry of Interpreters, Inc. played an increasingly vital role in society. Interpreters were needed in legal, medical, educational, religious, mass media, rehabilitation, social work, and recreational settings. Community agencies had begun to hire "interpreters" not knowing which ones were capable and which ones were unethical "helpers" who knew some signs. This triggered a concern for quality and proof of competency. The RID accepted its responsibility, for it was the "ideal agency for verification of these skills," commented Youngs. (256:54).

No longer acceptable were the minimum requirements for interpreters as Schein quoted Scheiber's description in 1964: "They must be able to hear; they must be able to sign; they must be willing; and they must be available." (216:190). These proposed Certification Standards were to eliminate the existing situation that one interpreter expressed as "translating for the deaf is like marriage counseling; anybody can hang out his shingle and do it." (302:207). The convention concluded with the intentions of continuing and even accelerating the movement toward more professionalism.

To implement this national evaluation plan, a National Evaluation Workshop was scheduled for 21-23 October of the same year. A representative from the forty-three RID state chapters was invited to Memphis, Tennessee to be certified and to be trained as an evaluator. The newly trained interpreter became the chairman of the local evaluation board. The chairman was the liason person with the RID National Certification Board which issued the certificates. Kirchner stated that the state chapter's evaluation team functioned "as an arm of the national RID." (382). Each evaluation team was comprised of five members, three of which were hearing impaired. A schematic of RID's evaluation process was included in Appendix B.

The various certificates have been delineated by RID as:

1. Expressive Translating Certificate - The interpreter has met at least the minimum requirements for expressive translating, which is used in situations that call for exact wording. Minimal reverse translating skills are required.

2. Expressive Interpreting Certificate - The interpreter has met at least the minimum requirements for expressive interpreting and minimal reverse interpreting skills.

3. Reverse Interpreting Certificate - The interpreter has met the minimum requirements for reverse translating and interpreting, which may be done orally, manually, or be in writing as dictated by ability or necessity. (Hearing impaired persons may also qualify for this certification.)

4. Comprehensive Skills Certificate - The interpreter has met at least the minimum requirement for expressive

translating and interpreting. The interpreter possesses the skills to handle reverse translating and interpreting situations represented in the various communication levels of the deaf.

5. Specialist - Legal Certification

Brasel and Brasel summed up the significance of these evaluations to RID's development as:

> Only through certification of its members that the RID can become an effective and professional organization, and it is only thru professional certification of interpreters that deaf people can be assured of qualified interpreters when they need them. (105:78).

The evaluation materials were revised during 1976-78. Since certification expired in five years, several members certified in 1972 found themselves unable to conduct evaluations for over a year. Guidry remarked that this delay was due to a combination of no funding and the leaders were overloaded by their regular full-time jobs. (360). The revisions included a new test designed for the comprehensively certified members. These members had the choice of this test leading to a Master Comprehensive Skills Certificate or the regular test. Increased professionalism was gleaned from the objective research concerning the evaluation process, such as Culton's paper on the Validation of the Certification Program, as mentioned by Stangarone. (367).

A National Certificate Board was formed to oversee the evaluation process, and a National Review Board to police its certified members. Schein and Tipton commented that this latter board was weak; Guidry added that there was no known enforcement in its six years of existence. (216:192, 244:15, 360).

Stangarone, the president of RID, encouraged state chapters to begin using the devised quality assurance program as pre-screening devices. He stated that the National Review Board was perhaps to be replaced by a new grievance procedure plan in 1979. (367).

Expanding Scope

In February 1972, the Florida Registry of Interpreters held a workshop on legal interpreting. Points expressed by those in attendance were: the deaf person's basic right to communication; to promote further passage of state laws requiring interpreters in legal procedures; and the awesome responsibility of becoming the ears and the voice for the deaf person. At this legal workshop, the summation from discussion groups was that interpretive profession must become a professional organization in its fullest sense with professional services, professional personnel, professional reimbursement and treatment. It was stated that "interpreting services are only in their infancy." (302:43).

The president, Carl Kirchner, in May of 1973 wrote in Interprenews that the outlook for the organization was

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bleak. The Research and Demonstration Grant was to terminate on June 30, 1973. (282). The RID received incorporation status on October 16, 1973 and continued to survive through dues, fund-raising, evaluation fees, pamphlet sales, and mini-grants. On March 26, 1974 a tax exempt status 501 (3) (3) was granted to RID by the Internal Revenue Service. In 1978, it was mentioned that a Group Ruling Tax Exempt Status to cover all RID chapters was being sought. (299).

The third convention was held 26-30 June 1974 in Seattle. Motions passed by participants were: the revision of the suggested fee schedule, the decision to remain an independent organization, and a committee to study, update, and revise the Code of Ethics. This revised code of ethics was proposed at the 1978 convention and included in Appendix C, but not enough members were present to approve its passage.

The 1974 convention was entitled "Professional Awareness." The workshops portrayed the internal changes in the members' attitudes and their involvement in the profession. The legal rights of an interpreter were discussed, including the possible need for malpractice insurance. To satisfy a request from the multitude of interpreters who found themselves instructing manual communication and interpreter training classes, part of the convention was a workshop on teacher techniques and materials.

The expanding scope of RID was further revealed by lecture on the increasing employment of interpreters by television stations and the establishment of a Clearinghouse for Interpreters for Deaf People via television. Members explored the feasibility of sponsoring an international interpreter's meeting in Washington, D.C. in August 1975, following the World Congress for the Deaf Convention.

Further involvement with the expansion of services can be viewed through other activities of RID. In 1974 a campaign, Deaf Awareness Year One, resulted in a proclamation by Congress that 18-24 August was to be National Deaf Awareness Week. In 1975 a grant through Wayne State University Law Enforcement Agency Association supported a Legal Workshop for Interpreters which resulted in the development of Legal Specialist Certification by RID.

In August 1976, RID's fourth convention was held in St. Petersburg, Florida, but the proceedings were not published. According to King, the members soundly defeated the vote to merge RID with the Professional Rehabilitation Workers of the Adult Deaf. King's reason for her vote for RID's stance of independence was "how can a service group join with a client/consumer group; this is comparable to lawyers forming a coalition with lawbreakers." This interpreter questioned the objectivity of interpreters if they affiliated with any other organization, including the National Association of the Deaf. (361).

On the international scene, RID had its first international conference in 1975, and its proceedings were published. On 12-14 August 1977 the second conference was held in Copenhagen, Denmark; plans have been made for a third in 1980.

In the 1978 convention entitled, "Interpreting Potpourri," the membership of RID had grown from the original 300 to 3,341 with sixty chapters located in forty-six states, Canadian Provinces, and Washington, D.C. (299). No record was available of the membership of the state chapters, for interpreters were no longer required to join the national RID to be certified. This change, said Stangarone, was due to a court case against the American Speech and Hearing Association which had a comparable requirement, later ruled illegal. (367). In 1975 Shroyer guessed that there were about 5,000 members in the state chapters, with aoproximately twenty-five percent being deaf people. (303:12-13). By the end of 1977, 1,540 certificates had been awarded by RID, but of that number only 586 were Comprehensive Skills Certificates and sixty-seven members had received legal certification. (299). Viewed in relation to Surkis' report of two million deaf Americans whose primary mode of communication is sign language, the 586 interpreters fully qualified by 1978 was an extremely meager number to fulfill the increasing needs. In RID's Interprenews in November 1974, it was remarked that "even if all present interpreters would be certified, a shortage would still exist." (282).

At this 1978 convention, the members discussed the increasing need to specialize and to upgrade their skills. In part, this was due to increased consumer sophistication; in part to the broadened demands on interpreters. Some workshops emphasized information in specialized areas of interpreting, but the need for actual training had not been met.

From 1964 to 1978, RID and its state chapters had organized numerous workshops and meetings to assist interpreters in their professional growth and development. Since 1970, in conjunction with a local chapter, the National RID office hosted biennial conventions. These conventions, in addition to the business meetings, provided in-service training and evaluation testing for its members. These efforts to educate its own members was further supplemented by the National Interpreter Training Consortium and other interpreter training programs that developed.

1979 - Developments

From an interview with Stangarone, the president of RID, a summary of the National Board of the RID actions primarily based on the recommendations of the members at the 1978 convention was provided.

It was decided that RID was not responsible for the formal training of its members, but it should be responsible for the accreditation of those educational institutions. As of 1978, no educational program had assumed the responsibility for on-going specialist training in the field of interpreting. Developments in the area of interpreter specialists were expected to occur in 1979. NITC and the Alexander Graham Bell Association were setting up guidelines and plans to evaluate oral interpreters in the summer of 1979. That same summer, the National Theatre of the Deaf has been planning to offer training in artistic interpreting. Another area of proposed certification in 1979 was interpreting in mental health settings, based on the guidelines used by foreign language interpreters.

Other areas not yet resolved were for programs to specialize in training interpreters in legal, educational, and mass media settings. The National Board accepted a request that interpreter trainers become a special section under RID. Interpreter trainers from the six permanent federally funded deaf educational programs have planned to meet in June in Seattle to devise a proposal to submit to RID. A nation-wide meeting of all interpreter trainers has been organized for October in St. Paul, Minnesota to establish policies, procedures, and guidelines.

Other developments reached beyond the confines of the national organization and its state chapters. Regional meetings, using the assigned geographical areas of the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration began to occur on the alternate years of the biennial convention. This decision was a fulfillment of the expressed wishes of Carson, Guidry, Trout and other interpreters. (359, 360, 368). Stangarone expressed that RID wished to encourage interpreters to join the National and/or State Associations of the Deaf. Another cooperative effort was made when the National Association of the Deaf revised sections of the Mutual Alliance Plan which were opposed by RID. At the 1980 convention to be held in Honolulu, the members of RID will vote on the revised Mutual Alliance Plan. (367).

Intwined with the development of professionalism and growth of RID was the concurrent legislative and social forces occurring around the United States. As institutions and agencies began to utilize interpreting services, more interpreter training programs developed to meet the increasing need. As training programs developed, the certifying organization, RID, and its state chapters grew in membership and national recognition.

Who Pays Interpreters

The Council of Organizations Serving the Deaf posted that the community should not overlook the problem of interpretive personnel and the funding for these people's worthwhile services. At this forum in 1966, it was recognized that interpreters were professionals and should receive a reasonable salary for their work. The question, posed by Johnson, "Who is going to pay for the interpretive needs of the deaf" outside of the Vocational Rehabilitation agencies' scope of services, has continued through 1978. (289:39).

This subject of payment has been discussed by several people with varying ideas as to who pays. Ingram felt that the deaf person should pay for the right to criticize; volunteer interpreters reinforced the dependency status which affected the quality of interpreting. (308:64).

In 1975 a resolution approved by the Commission on Psychology of the World Federation of the Deaf was more explicit:

> If deaf people are going to respect their language, they are going to have to respect the interpretation of their language, and this means equal pay for interpreters of sign language as for interpreters of spoken language. (308:65).

This commission pointed out that a discrepancy has existed between the hourly wage of an interpreter of a spoken language and the suggested fee schedule of the organization itself. (308:65).

The suggested fee schedule, included as Appendix D, was an attempt by RID to outline the recommended amount to be paid, depending upon the type of assignment and the interpreter's certification. At the 1974 convention, a motion was passed that the RID Suggested Fee Schedule be reviewed for possible revisions prior to each biennial convention.

DuBow outlined court cases regarding Section 504, in which the institutions and agencies receiving federal monies were mandated to pay for interpreter services.

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(133:n.p.). Funds for the payment of interpreters should come from the institutions, concluded Luke and Boggs, for "deaf people are tax-paying citizens and should not be penalized for having a handicap." (48:37).

Interpreter's Role

The interpreter's role was acknowledged as controversial in nature by Clarkson. (335:6). Sternberg, Tipton, and Schein in their Curriculum Guide for Interpreter Training summarized the controversy by posing these questions, "Is he merely a pair of ears and hands, or is he involved in the interpreting situation? If the latter, to what extent? (71:6). At the 1974 RID convention, Batali reiterated, how much do we do? (328:6).

In the 1965 manual on interpreting, the helper role was emphasized; an example was that it may be advisable that the interpreter draw up a time schedule chart for the patient to explain the use of medications. (278:65).

The responsibility of the interpreter to provide an orientation to deafness to those unfamiliar with this handicap was also mentioned in the manual. (278:48, 98). At the 1972 RID convention, Culton spoke of the interpreter's responsibility to educate the public. (320:178). On the latter point, Ingram warned that the role of the interpreter as explainer should be assumed only with the consent of the deaf client and the other person. (341:6). In her article, "Interpreting Ethics," Tipton completely disagreed with the explainer role by stating, "the ability to interpret does not automatically make a person an expert on deafness." (244:14).

The interpreter's role was still not agreed upon nor well-defined in the literature of the seventies, noted Clarkson. (335:6). As new occupational fields emerged in the 1970's, dual roles such as interpreter-tutor, interpreter-teacher, interpreter-counselor aide, and interpreter-secretary began to occur, which led to conflicts, an augmented role problem. Tipton requested RID to spell out the interpreter's role, including possible role conflicts. (244:15). The question as to what extent of involvement, if any, became the central issue among professionals in the field as viewed in the literature.

The growing tendency in the seventies was interpreters viewing themselves as "a neutral channel through which some language passes from one person," noted Hanson. (153:19). In 1975 Stangarone and Hughes took the stand of no involvement. "The interpreter does not make things better for the deaf; he makes things the same," stated Stangarone. (308:168). Hughes believed that the interpreter only provided "the mechanism for overcoming the communication barrier." (308:157).

The analogy of an interpreter as a remarkable machine was used by Jones:

> As each word is received, the computer searches its memory book for the appropriate visual signal which it sends to two transducing appendages where the words are sharply and clearly presented in visual form. The time lapse...must be measured in microseconds...This marvelous machine holds the key to open new and exciting experiences to deaf persons in educational, cultural, and religious areas. We can't begin to duplicate a device. (215:18).

Interpreters' descriptions seemed to foster this comparison. Stangarone discussed the interpreter's lack of absorption and memory of a speech. (308:170). Lupson agreed with this observation of Stangarone and referred to the interpreting role as "clicking into a machine-like state of being." (363). "A consciously-induced schizophrenia" was Seagrane's description in the July 1978 Interprenews. (282). Guidry voiced resentment toward the machine analogy by commenting "try to replace us." (360).

One of the most comprehensive articles on the interpreter's role was an article by Hanson. (153:17-20). The following two paragraphs were based on the ideas presented in the article, "A View of Interpreting As a Profession" published in 1978. Hanson began with these words: "We are still a profession in search of what we believe our professional role should be."

Some schools of thought discussed the interpreter's role as a person to make the situation equal, no more, no less for both the deaf and hearing. This concept of creating equality is good in theory. In reality, if interpreters in their zeal strictly applied this concept, deaf persons received unequal opportunities for they were not on equal ground with hearing persons. The awesome responsibility of some situations in which the interpreter literally had the life of another human being in his hands, was mentioned. The important point to remember was what the words communicated, not the words themselves. This meant that the interpreter must be a skilled communication analyzer, accepting professional responsibility that true communication was occurring.

Hanson concluded the article by cautioning:

> In our rush to make deaf persons equal through the magic of our flying hands, let us not lose sight of how unequal deaf people are because of the communication barrier. (153:19).

Significant Comments on RID

These comments concerning this neo-professional organization were selected as pertinent to this study and were given below:

> In general, it is difficult to go wrong when the decision is made to hire a certified RID interpreter. (48:33).
>
> More and more qualified interpreters are becoming available through the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, which is elevating interpreting to professional standards and status. (78:28).
>
> Our challenge is to reach the unhandicapped senses. Through the use of sign

language interpreters, the unhandicapped minds are being reached. (262:344).

We need to realize the extreme importance of the activity of Al Pimentel and The Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf in the encouragement and development of this very important component in the total resource needs of our adult deaf population. (313:76).

The task of interpreting is very demanding, both physically and mentally." (174:49).

You interpreters...have for years been not only "lending your ears," but also your hands in the service of your deaf neighbors. (320:191).

Interpreting is one of the most challenging of the 'helping' professions, a profession in which the dignity and right of self-determination of the deaf person you serve must always be paramount. (320:194).

You interpreters are here because of the deaf. (320:122).

RID has not been fully implemented; it should join with the National Association of the Deaf to be stronger. (365).

RID has got to get its act together, although my loyalty is with them and I understand many of the reasons for the problems of the past. (361).

I am really frustrated due to no organization, no leadership and no one to answer inquiries at the NRID. We need a full-time staff who can give the NRID full-time work. The NRID can not be run on a part-time, evening-work basis. (368).

As a certifying and evaluating body I think we have a legitimate reason to seek funds from the federal government for a professional paid staff because we perform a service for the government. RID needs to investigate other certifying bodies like the American Nursing Association

> to look at their model for certifying and where they get their funding. (364).
>
> Our weakness is not enough help in the home office. Our strength is we have something unique in interpreters to provide the best service we can. (367).

Post-Secondary Programs for Deaf People

Quigley credited the inclusion of the handicapped into higher education programs to the demands of minority groups for economic and social justice, including equal access to educational opportunities at all levels. The resulting pressure from these demands produced less restrictive admission requirements, increased resources, and remedial programs. Although this writer reported these facts, implications were made for broader applications. These changes seemed to not only allow deaf students into equal, integrated schools, but the trend of special services increased their chances to succeed. (32:97).

Growth of Programs

In response to increasing information and pressure concerning the inequality of opportunities for deaf individuals, President Johnson signed on 8 June 1965, Public Law 89-36 providing for the establishment of the National Technical Institute for the Deaf in Rochester, New York, commented Moores and Quigley. In keeping with society's increasing valuation of integration, this facility was to employ interpreters, enabling deaf students to attend classes with the non-handicapped. Prior to this law, the only higher education facility serving the deaf population was Gallaudet College, for post-secondary opportunities for deaf students remained static from 1864 to 1964, summarized Moores and Quigley. (52:198, 261, 32:104-5, 109).

Before the Institute accepted its first students, another legislative act significantly altered the educational choices of deaf people and occupational opportunities for interpreters. The Higher Education Act and Vocational Amendments of 1968 provided deaf students with federal assistance to attend any post-secondary program with the services of a paid interpreter. Education of the Handicapped Act, Elementary and Secondary Act of 1974, Section 625, provided federal grant money to develop four regional pilot post-secondary programs with special services for deaf students. These were: Delgado College in New Orleans, St. Paul's Technical Vocational Institute in Minnesota, Seattle Community College, and California State University in Northridge.

These regional programs serving deaf students were an alternative for those deaf students who did not have access to Gallaudet College and National Technical Institute for the Deaf which served the top 10-15% of deaf students. Quigley reported that the entrance of a larger proportion of deaf students into post-secondary programs raised the aspiration levels of other deaf students, their parents, and their schools. (32:98). At a congressional hearing, the directors of the four regional programs stated that prior to 1968, less that 10% of the deaf sought post-secondary education, while in 1977, "an almost complete reversal has taken place with 80-90% of deaf persons seeking post-secondary education." (262:74).

A review of the annual "Directory of Programs and Services," published by the American Annals of the Deaf and the 1975 and 1978 editions of A Guide to College/Career Programs for Deaf Students showed the precipitous growth of post-secondary programs serving the deaf population. There was one operating program in the fall of 1968; twenty-seven in 1972; forty-three in 1975; and sixty in 1978. (61, 62). An accelerating force in the development of these programs, besides the stimulation of grant money, was the passage of the Vocational Educational Act of 1968 which provided for ten percent of all Vocational Education monies to be designated for handicapped students.

Interpreters As a Support Service

Regular classroom teachers expressed support for interpreters, and regarded them "as the catalyst permitting deaf students to receive technical-vocational training with hearing students," reported Moores. (52:274). Interpreters have been considered "the key to the success of the deaf student's achievements in hearing colleges," wrote Seal, McDonalds, and Lauritsen. (69:77-78, 262:120, 316:80). Corman testified in 1977 before the Subcommittee on Select Education that interpreters for deaf students have made "the crucial differences between professional and non-professional career status, income and lifestyle." (262:319). The president of the National Association of the Deaf, Sanderson, wrote that "interpreters are our bridges and our gates to the world of sound, our escape from silence." (17).

Harkins questioned eleven directors of post-secondary programs who answered that "interpreters are the basic, most essential support service." (154:48). Carter and Lauritsen commented that "the rise of interpreters to positions of prominence in education began in 1968 with the advent of expanded post-secondary educational programs for deaf students." (115:52).

The extent to which interpreting services were utilized in post-secondary programs was portrayed in the 1975 Guide to College/Career Programs for Deaf Students. A review of this book showed that out of the forty-three post-secondary programs, all but two utilized interpreters. One, Gallaudet College, did not use these services because all classes were specifically for deaf students so instructors signed for themselves. (61).

The 1978 Guide to College/Career Programs for Deaf Students had more detailed information on the sixty existing programs which had a minimum of ten full-time deaf students and other criteria. All programs, excluding Gallaudet, employed interpreters. Through a tabulation made from the individual program, there were 674 employed interpreters with an additional seventeen volunteers recorded. Less than half (310) were certified; this term, certified, was ambiguous for neither the type of certification nor the certifying organization were mentioned. (62).

Although these two books outlined the almost unanimous usage of interpreters, no information could be obtained as to whether this was full-time or part-time employment, nor the salary scale. These statistics verified the four directors of the regional deaf programs joint statement that these regional education programs stimulated "unprecedented growth in interpreting services." (262:76). The ensuing shortage and augmented need for interpreters "in a constantly increasing number of areas as social, educational, and economic potential of deaf people seeks expansion, diversification, and improvement" was predicted in the 1965 manual for interpreters. (278:105). This prediction became reality in the following decade; Riekehofs in 1974 said that an increased need for interpreters would be evidenced as the number of deaf professionals grew. (209: 51). Schreiber gave an example of this occurrance with the hiring of the first Civil Service rated interpreter for Malcolm Norwood, the head of Media Services and Captioned Films. (223:16).

Deaf Population's Increasing Demands for Services

A commonly observed phenomenon occurred. As the deaf population became more informed, there was a correspondingly greater desire to share meaningfully in all aspects of life that are routinely open to hearing people. In 1977, the regional directors said at a congressional hearing that post-secondary programs "have been at the center of the explosion of services for deaf adults in the last ten years." (262:77).

Schein remarked on the snowball effect of educating the deaf population:

> As more and more deaf persons become aware of the benefits which may be obtained through full communication in different situations, their demands for wider and better interpreting services tend to increase. Likewise as agencies serving deaf people become better aware of the uses and benefits of interpreter services--and their value in enhancing agency effectiveness in serving deaf clients--they tend to specify or demand that such interpreting services be on hand, and they are usually glad to pay for such services. (71:x).

Like Schein, Merrill concurred that the ground swell for equal civil rights for deaf people has been led by deaf graduates. (182:30).

The liberating act of expressing demands could finally be experienced by deaf people through the interpreter's articulation. Sternberg credited interpreters for the rise of deaf advocacy. (232:63). In conjunction with these increasing demands of the deaf population, there were increased demands for interpreting services. In an article, "RID Chapters, Interpreters and You," it was said that this demand for interpreters "paralleled the increased participation of deaf people." (206:8). Various legislation had been enacted and new laws were passed to provide for utilization of interpreters. With the pressure of advocacy groups, the regulations became enforced and increasingly comprehensive in their coverage.

Legislation Concerning Interpreter Usage

Various laws directly or indirectly specified the use of interpreters. These laws influenced the employment opportunities for interpreters as they were enforced to include the deaf population in the equal rights movement.

Laws Passed in 1965-1977

A synopsis of a speech given by Pimentel at the 1978 RID convention with supplementary data from Brill has been used in an attempt to survey the federal legislation providing for interpreter services. (299, 10).

1. The Vocational Rehabilitation Act Amendment of 1965 (Public Law 89-333). Section 9 amended Section 11(a) of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1954 (Public Law 83-565) defining Vocational Rehabilitation Services to include "interpreter services for such individuals who are deaf, regardless of economic need." Pimentel commented that state agencies were slow in authorizing interpreters for case services.

2. The Higher Education Act of 1968 had a provision for Student Special Services, in which interpreting services were mentioned. Post-secondary programs, colleges, and universities could apply for monies authorized by Title VI, Part B, of Public Law 93-380 to provide support services.

3. The Education for All Handicapped Children, Public Law 94-142, in 1975 specifically stated that interpreting services were to be utilized for deaf parents and deaf children to actively and appropriately participate. Pimentel referred to other laws which implied the utilization of interpreters. Although this service was not specifically mentioned, it was interpreted to include provisions for interpreting services.

a. Public Law 89-333 in 1965 established the National Technical Institute for the Deaf at which time it was clear that interpreter services were essential for integration.

b. In the 1968 Amendments to the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (Public Law 90-576), Congress mandated that at least 1% of federal funds be allotted for vocational education for handicapped students. This increased the enrollment of deaf students in post-secondary programs which generated the utilization and training of interpreters.

c. Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973, Title V, (Sections 501, 502, 503, and 504) provided for equal opportunities for handicapped persons to participate in or be employed by federally funded programs. In order to implement that law, it was decided that interpreting services were within the intent of Congress. On 4 May 1977, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare published the final regulations implementing Section 504 and specifically designated interpreter services as necessary to avoid discrimination, reported DuBow. (260:595).

The impact of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973, especially Section 504, and Public Law 94-142 began to be felt in the late seventies as it was implemented and enforced. The resulting litigation (1976-1978) concerning the rights of the handicapped, was outlined by DuBow. (133:n.p.). Goldberg in Seminar: The Law and the Deaf said that these two laws "have been hailed as a Bill of Rights for disabled citizens." (325:15). Before the full weight of these two laws was experienced, further legislation occurred in the fall of 1978 which strengthened the rights of the deaf individuals and consequently, RID.

Court Interpreters Act of 1978

On 28 October 1978, the Court Interpreters Act (Public Law 95-539) was passed. Before its passage, the House and Senate referred to it as the Bilingual Hearing and Speech-Impaired Court Interpreter Act. This act required the use of oral or sign language interpreters for persons with impaired hearing involved in cases in the Federal Court System. This law mandated interpreters only in cases of criminal or civil action initiated by the United States in a United States district court.

RID in the seventies had encouraged the passage of interpreter laws in each state with success in twenty-seven. The subsequent state legislation concerning courtroom interpreters varied greatly in quality or remained non-existant or unenforced. These variations can be reviewed by a survey of the state laws which have been listed in the Regional Directories published by RID. (267). The National Center for Law and the Deaf published "a model act to provide for the appointment and use of interpreters" for deaf individuals for all administrative and judicial proceedings.

Comprehensive Rehabilitation Services Amendments of 1978

The 1977-78 Congressional Hearings were used to summarize the following data. (258, 259, 260). This law dealt most directly with the importance of the interpreters and the need for their resource personnel in the provision of equal rights for the hearing impaired citizens. On 7 November 1978, President Carter passed the Comprehensive Rehabilitation Services Amendments of 1978 (Public Law 95-602). The main sections applicable to RID were:

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Section 114: The establishment of twelve programs for nationwide interpreter training with training grants offered through the Office of Handicapped Individuals. Authorizations were: $34 million for fiscal year 1979; $40 million for 1980; $45 million for 1981; $50 million for 1982; and such additional sums as may be necessary for each of the four fiscal years.

Section 118. Authorizations of technical aid to organizations and public institutions to remove communication, architectural and transportation barriers to handicapped people.

Section 315. Grants by the Commissioner of Rehabilitation Services Administration to set up information and interpreter referral programs within each state.

Section 505. The awarding of attorney fees in court actions to help handicapped people enforce Sections 501, 502, 503, and 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973.

Shortage of Interpreters and a Remedy

As a direct result of the number of post-secondary programs that evolved since 1968 and the legislation passed, the number of interpreters needed to deliver services were not available.

The lack of interpreters in the post-secondary programs was proclaimed by Clarkson, Carter, Lauritsen, Merrill, Schein, Sternberg, and numerous others throughout the literature of the seventies. (335:3, 115:53, 183:604, 71:vi, 71:3). In summary of the literature, Ingram found that "we read of the shortage of interpreters in almost every journal and magazine focusing on the problems of deaf persons." (161:7).

The integral role that interpreters played in these post-secondary programs was expressed by the directors of the four regional programs that

> the number of deaf students studying as regular or integrated students is in direct ratio to the number of interpreters available. The availability of interpreters is a critical variable to the total number of deaf students that can be served." (262:101).

Merrill remarked that this lack of skilled professional interpreters "is staggering and constitutes the major barrier in providing post-secondary education of quality to deaf students." (182:604). "We are running out of children of deaf parents, and the demand is incredible," recounted Murphy. (308:154). In a survey of administrators of post-secondary programs, Harkins reported that the most common dilema was finding enough interpreters. (154:48).

As a legislation mandated that all handicapped persons be provided equal rights, the increased use of interpreters by national, state, and local agencies worsened the already existing shortage. This shortage of qualified interpreters in many geographic areas, noted Harkins, "will probably be a major problem in implementing Section 504." The conclusion expressed in this article was that "the laws which guarantee the services of qualified interpreters is useless if there are no interpreters in the area." (154:49, 51).

The problems of communication of this "invisible handicap became further visible to the community, especially the social service agencies who now, by law, had to provide full services for this minority group. Riekehof concisely stated in 1969, "the interpreter has been the 'missing link' but is now here to make possible equal opportunities for the deaf." (21:9). Social, educational, medical, and legal agencies began to agree with Riekehof. Riekehof, herself, admitted five years later that "the demand for skilled interpreters has reached the point where the demand exceeds the supply." (209:47). Sternberg, a deaf consumer, warned that "as long as a chronic shortage exists, unqualified interpreters will serve the deaf." (232:68).

Dicker summarized the reason for the interpreter shrotage:

> Because of recent legislation within states that makes it mandatory that deaf people be provided with interpreters when their citizen rights are affected. In addition, the phenomenal growth of vocational educational programs, of continuing education programs for deaf adults and the placement of deaf students in classrooms with hearing students have placed impossible demands upon the relatively few qualified interpreters. (131:312).

The government attempted to remedy this critical shortage, in conjunction with its main two laws providing for interpreters. The Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and the Comprehensive Rehabilitation Services Amendments of 1978 both made provisions for the training of interpreters to fulfill the requirements of Section 504.

National Interpreter Training Consortium

The 1973 Vocational Rehabilitation Act provided a short term training grant to remedy the critical shortage of interpreters. In the Introduction to the National Interpreter Training Consortium, it was said that the provision pointed out "the urgency of expanding the availability of interpreters for deaf clients and improving their effectiveness." (345:1).

On June 1974, the National Interpreter Training Consortium was established. The national Interpreter Training Consortium, in cooperation with RID, had the following goals to obtain before termination of the grant on 31 March 1980:

1. To upgrade the skills of persons presently interpreting.

2. To recruit and train as interpreters people who have had little or no previous experience as interpreters.

3. To train a group of interpreters having the special skills necessary to interpret for low-verbal, severely handicapped deaf individuals.

4. To prepare interpreter trainers.

5. To assist state agency personnel and other service workers in understanding the role and function of interpreters and in utilizing available interpreting resources maximally while developing new interpreting resources in each state.

6. To educate deaf people in the utilization of interpreters.

The six strategically located regional centers chosen to conduct programs for training interpreters were: Center on Deafness at California State University in Northridge; Sign Language Programs at Gallaudet College; Deafness Research and Training Center at New York University; Program for Deaf Students at St. Paul Technical-Vocational Institute; the Rehabilitation Center at the University of Arizona; and the Department of Special Education and Rehabilitation at the University of Tennessee.

The need for providing education training and in-service training became paramount with the increasing requests for interpreters with professional level skills to work in educational, medical, legal, and social service settings. Ingram stated that the interpreter needed in these new professional roles could no longer be untrained "helpers." The reason given was that interpretation was rapidly developing into a highly sophisticated science, art, and skill. (308:2).

Prior to the seventies, the typical interpreter was a self-taught child of deaf parents with no training, stated Sternberg, Schein, and Clarkson. (232:63, 217:vi, 355:3). According to Stangarone, Nowell and Stuckless, interpreter training programs were a necessity before 1975 due to the establishment of post-secondary programs. (231:92, 196:69). In the 1965 manual on interpreting, an entire chapter was included on the need for training programs and a set of guidelines for an accredited training program was outlined. (278:105-127).

Before the National Interpreter Training Consortium could produce results, a powerful federal law was enacted which caught several states, perhaps all, unprepared. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, better known to educators as Public Law 94-142, was passed. Now interpreters were needed not only to serve the adult deaf population, but to serve the mainstreaming needs of the elementary and secondary schools. This law led Murphy to remark that "the need for interpreters in this country is just phenomenal. It is just exploding." (308:154).

Shroyer claimed that the RID one-year Provisional Permit, a special membership, was initiated for the students of the National Interpreter Training Consortium, who were service apprenticeships in preparation for certification. RID's explanation on the membership form stated that due to the recognition of the critical shortage of interpreters as an emergency situation, the Provisional Permit was created to meet this exploding need. Shroyer mentioned other by-products of the Consortium as the establishment of Junior RID chapters and evaluation techniques for interpreter trainers and trainees. (308:14).

The 1979 "Program Narrative" of the Consortium activities (1974-1978) provided statistical information as to its activities and subsequent impact. (315).

In fulfillment of their upgrading objective, 592 workshops comprising 19,563 trainees were given. These workshops were to prepare interpreters for RID certification. The impact was recorded in comparison form. This report showed that in the nine years of RID prior to National Interpreter Training Consortium (referred to as NITC) only 414 certificates were awarded; in the second year 422 more certificates were awarded. The total gain of certified interpreters since NITC's inception was 1,662.

This review claimed that "this single figure indicates, but does not fully describe, the NITC's impact because RID evaluations have lagged behind requests for them." Although these statistics were striking, no validation was provided that the number of newly certified interpreters was a direct correlation to NITC's training. The second objective to recruit and train interpreters without prior experience was pursued by sponsoring eighty-three workshops for 929 participants. Following these three-month intensive training programs, 83.3 percent of the participants obtained employment as interpreters. This report stated that since NITC began the total membership of RID had tripled.

NITC's third objective to train interpreters to work with deaf persons with minimal language competence was evaluated in terms of its twenty-one workshops. These two-week programs trained 242 interpreters in this specialized skill.

The preparation of interpreter trainers in each state was viewed as "the eventual solution to the shortage of interpreters for deaf clients." Eleven workshops serving 111 present and potential interpreter trainers were held by December 1978. Eighty-six workshops for 3,246 deaf consumers were given by NITC to provide in-depth training on interpreter usage.

These accomplishments of NITC were viewed numerically, whereas the heightened awareness produced nationwide regarding interpreters and their function, the major contribution, was not measurable.

Interpreter Training Programs

The regional post-secondary deaf programs which began in 1968-1974 were not able to wait for the development and/or interpreter output of the National Interpreter Training Consortium. Stangarone, Riekehof, Carter and Lauritsen, Sternberg, and Nowell and Stuckless wrote articles concerning their educational institutions' development of training programs designed to meet their immediate need for interpreters in educational settings. (231:94, 209:47, 115:52, 232:63, 196:69).

In the article, "The Use of Interpreters in an Integrated Liberal Arts Setting," Hughes et al commented that in 1974 ninety-five percent of their part-time interpreters were students themselves at the California State University-Northridge. The University offered unconditional three hundred dollar stipends to students with good manual communication skills. (159:18). At this facility, the first interpreter training program was established in 1973, reported Clarkson (335:3). Carlson claimed that St. Paul Technical-Vocational Institute began their program in 1972. (359).

Vernon commented that since the interpreter training programs are run by educational institutions and have been designed to meet their specific needs, the emphasis has been on educational settings. (250:107). According to Morgan, Nowell, and Stuckless, it will be necessary for interpreters to specialize in other settings as well for deaf people to benefit from other public services. (187:29, 196:73). The major purpose of an interpreter program should be "to prepare interpreters to have the capabilities to function in various settings," remarked Finch et al. (298:n.p.).

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The success of an interpreter training program, stated Dicker, can only be measured by the student's ability to pass the RID's evaluation, acquiring certification, and "ultimately to be respected as an interpreter by the deaf consumer." (131:319). Broading this idea was Tipton who wrote "Interpreting Ethics." In this article, the writer declared that before interpreters could be allowed to earn money for their services, they should be required: to join RID; undergo training; and to pass a certification exam. (344:5). Required training will make the area of interpreting a more professional one, added Stangarone. (231:93)

Finch and others in 1978 concluded that although interpreters have provided an essential service for a long time, "the formal preparation of interpreters is still in its infancy." (298:2). The training of an interpreter stated Pimental, must be sufficient to the point of satisfying: the agency engaging his services; the persons or agency that he is referred to for actual interpreting; and most important to the deaf person who is depending on the interpreter for an efficient interpreting performance.(199:117).

The lofty goal of the National Interpreter Training Consortium and RID, as coordinated approach to interpreter training, was to have a resulting uniformity which would mean greater comprehension by deaf consumers. The goal was outlined in the introduction of the National Interpreter Training Consortium curriculum. (345) A review of the Directory of Interpreter Training Programs portrayed the fact that by 1978 this goal had not been attained.

With the proliferation of post-secondary programs, Carter and Lauritsen anticipated "that interpreter institutes under various titles, time durations, selection processes and curriculum content will also proliferate in these next few years." (115:61). This prophesy proved to be entirely accurate by surveying the forty-seven programs listed in Vidrine's Directory of Interpreter Training Programs. (35). In 1978, interpreter training programs were also named: Training of Rehabilitation Interpreters, Sign Languages Programs, Manual Communication Program, and Para-Professionals for the Deaf. These programs ranged from four weeks non-credit classes to four years Bachelor of Arts degrees in interpreting. Selection processes have been either stringent, vague, or non-existent; curriculum content and requirements lacked uniformity. Although the National Interpreter Consortium warned that sign language classes should not be confused with interpreter training, no clear delination existed in the brochures published by various programs.

At a Congressional hearing in 1977, the directors of the four regional post-secondary programs made this general comment:

> Interpreter training...is a growth phenomena at each of the REP's (Regional Education Programs for the Deaf). Interpreter training programs offer a ready supply to fulfill interpreter needs at the REP's, in the local community, and indeed throughout the nation. (263:82)

The latter part of directors' statement was contradicted the following year at the Congressional hearings. DuBow said that to effectively implement Section 504 to assist the deaf population, a pool of qualified sign language interpreters and an adequate referral service was needed and did not exist. (260:598).

The shortage was outlined by NITC in 1977. This report stated that in the United States there were 1,540 certified interpreters, 1,804 non-certified, and 8,587 needed. (315:32). In 1979, Stangarone, the president of RID, estimated that 10,000 more interpreters were needed. (367). Lauritsen agreed with Stangarone's estimate with regard to interpreters serving the mainstream concept, and remarked that 2,000 more interpreters were needed solely for post-secondary programs. (263:848).

To alleviate this chronic shortage which hindered the enforcement of Section 504, Public Law 95-602 provided for twelve interpreter training programs and an interpreter referral center in each state.

A review of the Policies, Procedures, and Guidelines for the Implementation of the National Interpreters for the Deaf Training Act of 1978 written in June of 1978 depicted the intended, intensive involvement of RID (Appendix E). The impact of the law on RID has not yet been decided. Stangarone commented that in March of 1979 the rules and regulations were to be discussed; RID was fighting for recognition as the accrediting agency. (367). The heads of interpreter training programs who were present at the 1978 convention seemed to agree that RID should be the provider of leadership. Ingram wrote:

> To insure quality in these programs, it is incumbent upon the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID), Inc. to enact a system of accreditation (or approval) of training programs, facilities, and personnel. (162:3).

Prior to Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (Section 504) and subsequent laws, skepticism about the job market for interpreters existed. Ingram voiced the concern that although at almost every meeting professionals said that there were not enough interpreters to serve the needs of the deaf people, he questioned where are the jobs. In his article, "Concepts of Employment of Interpreters for the Deaf", Ingram unknowingly explored areas of employment which did open up in the later seventies. His fear, "lest we end up training people with beachelors degrees to stand in unemployment lines," was repeated by Stangarone who said, "I don't think that we can justify opening up too many centers to train interpreters." (161:708, 231:92).

The rapid proliferation of programs to train interpreters continued expressions of fear concerning employment of interpreters. Guidry remarked in 1978 that eventually the interpreting field could become like the teaching field - an oversupply, but "right now not many top-rate interpreters are turned out." (360). Finch and others the same year remarked that the "job market may become flooded in the future, especially if an increase in federal support for interpreter programs occurs. (298:24). RID seemed to be aware of this possibility for in its guidelines for accrediting interpreter training programs as recipients of the federal funding it was stated that a job placement component must be included (Appendix E).

Chapter three portrayed the movement from the volunteer communication "helper" to a new occupational career, the sign language interpreter. With the establishment of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc., and its code of ethics, this occupation became professional. Further professionalism developed as the members responded to the increasing demands for their services, especially in post-secondary and vocational rehabilitation settings. Legislation led to augmented utilization of interpreters which led to a nationwide shortage of this resource personnel. To alleviate this scarcity, the National Interpreter Training Consortium and other interpreter training programs were established. In chapter four the combined visibility of the deaf person and the interpreters, the ensuing sign

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language upheaval and its developing interrelationships were discussed.

CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPING INTERRELATIONSHIPS

The Rehabilitation Services Administration was the forerunner and advocate for the acceptance and usage of sign language, said Smith. (366). A deaf leader, Schreiber, remarked that "vocational rehabilitation was the deaf man's best friend." (223:16). Clarkson said that the reason was that it was "the only agency in town where they (deaf people) can expect to deal with someone who can use sign language and has an understanding of the problems of the deaf." (335:18).

Vocational Rehabilitation's Early Acceptance of Sign Language

The data provided by Jacobs, in A Deaf Adult Speaks Out, had implications for broader applications. He reported that ninety-five percent of deaf adults used manual communication as their primary mode of communication. This writer said that deaf pupils were placed in manual classes "when they were proven to be failures in the oral method, usually in their adolescence." (39:34). This data was substantiated in the writings of Kohl, Kannapell, and Moores. (42:10, 168:12, 52:154). These facts were applicable to the Rehabilitation Services Administration, which dealt with deaf adults, the "failures of the oral method." The practical solution for the agency to deliver rehabilitation services was to employ the manual-oral method. According to Vernon and Schwartz, "any effort in rehabilitation which fails to account for the communication issue neglects a major aspect of the situation it intends to resolve." (316:97).

A review of the literature pointed out that these professionals began to include sign language in their training programs and workshops in the early sixties. (281, 294, 303, 305, 324). Prior to the sixties, the only other professionals which served deaf people through the medium of sign language were religious workers, reported Smith and Davis. (281:40, 294:58).

Mary Switzer, the Commissioner of Vocational Rehabilitation, realized the value of a teamwork relationship with church workers. Switzer viewed ministers' contribution as threefold: deep knowledge of deaf persons' services as a community leader and developer; and expertness as an interpreter. (305:iv). To encourage a cooperative relationship, the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration sponsored meetings such as "Workshop on Deafness and Vocational Rehabilitation for Assemblies of God Workers," and "Workshop for Baptists on Deafness and Rehabilitation." (305, 294).

The literature on deafness was surfeited with references to two outstanding leaders, Mary Switzer and Boyce Williams, of the Rehabilitation Services Administration. The deaf administrator of the Office of Deafness and Communication Disorders in the Rehabilitation Services Administration, Dr. Boyce R. Williams' "vision and persistence" over the past decade has contributed greatly to the quality of services available to deaf persons, commented Schein. (325:1). Newman credited Mary Elizabeth Switzer, the Commissioner of the Vocational Rehabilitation Services in the sixties, as the person who encouraged the development of RID and the utilization of interpreting services by federal, state, and local agencies. (278:vii).

Research, Projects, Programs, and Their Influence

The Vocational Rehabilitation Administration began intensive research, projects, and professional training programs in the field of deafness in 1957, from monies made available through the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1954 (Public Law 83-565). Excellent reviews of the numerous research and training projects were compiled by Adler and Norris. (280, 316). Bowe, Watson, and Anderson referred to the research strategy of the Social and Rehabilitation Service as "the single most important influence on the direction" of the field of deafness. (80, 78).

Vernon, in his article, "Potential, Achievement, and Rehabilitation in the Deaf Population", praised the Vocational Rehabilitation office's immediate implementation of the research finds that total manual-oral communication was most effective. (80:99). Moores and Vernon criticized the slowness of the Bureau of Education of the Handicapped to do likewise. (52:24, 80:99).

The Vocational Rehabilitation Services needed the Assistance of Office of Education to improve the undereducated, therefore, underemployed status of the average deaf individual, commented Hunt. (274:Introduction). In 1967 the Rehabilitation Agency initiated a collaborative conference between the two agencies, the "National Conference for Coordinating Rehabilitation and Education Services for the Deaf," better known as the Las Cruces Conference.(274). Mills commented that besides another conference, "Las Cruces Revisted" held in 1976, the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped and the Rehabilitation Services Administration has shown little or no cooperative efforts or joint planning on behalf of deaf youths and adults who have been covered by both programs. (90:2, 28).

The major accomplishments of the Vocational Rehabilitation Services, according to Vernon, were: the establishment of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. 1964; the emphasis in its training programs in deafness that prospective counselors be taught sign language and fingerspelling; the establishment of the Communication Skills Program (1967); the placement of deaf persons in professional positions as counselors, teachers, and high level policy-making federal administrators. (80:99).

Lloyd and Watson reported that the Social and Rehabilitation Services was the primary service delivery system for deaf adults. These writers said that within the past decade (1965-1975) the population surveys and demonstration research projects of the Rehabilitation Services Administration played a significant role in the "linkage and coordination, program planning, development, and evaluation" of other organizations, agencies, and institutions serving the deaf population. This chapter, entitled "Social and Rehabilitation Services: An Emerging Force in Deafness," was summarized to provide a listing of this agency's major projects. (300:34-41).

1. The 1974 National Census of the Deaf Population which contributed significantly to every major program in the field of deafness

2. The establishment of Research and Training Centers

3. The program planning and development of post-secondary vocational-technical programs for deaf students

4. The establishment of professional training programs which also offered preservice and inservice training

5. The establishment of the Communication Skills Program and the National Interpreter Training Consortium

6. The financial support of organizations, such as RID, Professional Rehabilitation Workers for the Adult Deaf,

the Council of Organization Serving the Deaf, and their publication

7. The coordination and consolidation of programs, especially the comprehensive Model State Plan for the Vocational Rehabilitation of Deaf Persons

The literature substantiated the statement made by Williams that the "state-federal vocational rehabilitation program stands out among all public and private services in responding the needs of our most serious underserved minorities, deaf people." (69:iii).

Deaf Militancy

Articles in the seventies such as Vernon's "Deaf Militancy" and "RID Reflections on a Decade of Deaf Movement Action" portrayed the growing unit and strength of this minority group. (249, 208). Silverman commented that the "emergence of vigorous, militant, persistent demand for rights," was the social force that producted legislation. (286:2). The National Advisory Committee on the Handicapped in 1976 said that the consumer movement was being led more recently by groups formed by handicapped persons themselves. (262:405).

Stewart, a deaf author, wrote that this "silent minority is growing restless under the yoke of centuries-old discrimination and denial of their right as Americans to equal treatment under the law." (81:3). According to Schein, Tipton and Gustason, recognition of sign language contributed significantly to deaf pride, deaf power, and increasing militancy. (217:14, 244:15, 316:89).

In Interprenews, RID reported that in the sixties when "first stirrings of the deaf movement became visible," all programs, agencies, and organizations serving deaf people were inundated with requests for guidance, information, and services. According to this article, for the first time professionals, educators, parents and relatives, interpreters, and other hearing people joined forces with the deaf population to effect change. (282).

Goldberg stated, "so their speech may not be intelligible. But they are by no means mute, and in fact, deaf people are becoming downright vociferous" through the use of interpreters. (325:59). The deaf population"s need and demand for equal access to information and services meant the increased use of interpreters in all areas of their life, said Bird and Smith. (284:5). The necessity of an interpreter in all settings was explained by a deaf artist who entitled a painting, "My Eyes are My Ears" and Garnett who entitled a chapter, "My Mind is in My Hand." (58:14, 25:117).

Visibility of Interpreters

"The interpreter is a visible symbol of deafness," remarked Murphy at the First International Conference on Interpreting, held in 1975. (308:147). Jones at the 1972 RID convention compared the blind person's use of white canes and seeing eye dogs as visibility symbols to the interpreter. (302:195).

Jones and Murphy, co-workers at the California State University-Northridge, also employed the concept of visibility in reference to the deaf people themselves as they were integrated into community-centered schools. (164:614). Murphy was referring to both the visibility of deaf persons and interpreters when he said this visibility was a major facotr in society's attitudinal change towards deafness. (308:147).

In a co-authored article, Jones and Murphy repeated and expanded their idea with the following two statements: "the interpreter gives visibility to deafness, an otherwise 'invisible' handicap" and "the interpreter calls attention to the handicap at the same time the method is used to overcome it." (165:542).

Jones summarized the evolutionary process that produced this visibility of interpreters:

> For too long this suppression of sign language has made deafness a "hidden" handicap with minimal public understanding or acceptance. Now for the first time in history

> sign language is emerging as a legitimate and respected language and you interpreters through your interpreting for deaf persons in public meetings, in schools, and churches giving unprecedented visibility to deafness. (320:195).

At the White House Conference on Handicapped Individuals, held in 1977, Pettingill reported that "deaf participants eloquently and enthusiastically told interpreters, '_Thanks_ for making deafness so visible...'" (197:15).

Repercussions of Visibility: The Sign Language Upheaval

The visibility of the deaf population increased through: their integration into the community's preschool, elementary, secondary, and post-secondary programs; their use of other social service agencies, other than Vocational Rehabilitation; and their general entry into the mainstream. Not only had the public signing of deaf people themselves given visibility to their handicap, but the visibility of the interpreter working in the community heightened society's awareness of this minority group.

Further awareness was brought about by the expanding use of sign language on television in newscasts, political campaign speeches, and educational and entertainment productions. This mass-media usage of sign language extended to an ever-widening audience of hearing persons and awareness and better understanding of deafness, stated Shroyer and Jones. (308:12, 320:195). When programs using sign language were televised, observed Lupson, there was an increased number of telephone calls concerning sign language classes, and a career in interpreting. (363). In Orientation to Deafness for Social Workers, it was stated that the visibility accorded to deaf persons through interpreted television programs not only informed the public, but generated "a more positive psych-social image for deaf persons themselves," recognizing their human right to use sign language. (319:iii).

In the seventies, a greatly enlarged, vastly diverse segment of the general public got involved in the sign language upheaval through increased awareness of sign language, deaf persons, and interpreters.

Concurrently, the efforts of organizations, such as the Vocational Rehabilitation Services, and the International Association of Parents of the Deaf, Inc. began to produce results. Davis and Silverman wrote that further evidence of the growing interest in deaf people was "increased organized activities on the National and International scene by academic, professional, philanthropic, and lay groups." (15:380). A comparison of the "Directory of Programs and Services for the Deaf" (April issue), published annually by the American Annals of the Deaf revealed the tremendous growth of organizations and programs involved in the field of deafness.

In the sixties, deaf community referred to deaf people. In the 1977 RID Deaf Awareness Brochure, the attitudal change was reflected in the redefinition of this term. RID stated:

> Today the 'Deaf Community" includes deaf citizens, audiologists, educators, rehabilitation counselors, ministers, psychologists, social workers, interpreters, other professionals in various disciplines, parents with deaf children, brothers and sisters of deaf people, children with deaf parents, and members of the general public who are anxious to help overcome the loneliness of deafness. (295:4).

Goldberg's remark that "other disabilities separate people from things, deafness separates people from people" no longer was completely valid. (325:8). The isolation of the deaf population diminished in the seventies due to the sign language upheaval which resulted in increasing numbers of the general population learning sign language and employing interpreters.

One stimulating force in the sign language upheaval was the regional post-secondary programs for the deaf, stated Brademas, the chairman of the Subcommittee on Select Education. In these 1977 hearings, Brademas outlined that these post-secondary programs served as a stimulus for use of interpreters in other settings, interpreting training programs, and sign language classes. (262:76-77).

Increased Use of Interpreting Services

The supportive service model of interpreter usage refined in the post-secondary programs has been extended to continuing adult education programs by community agencies and institutions, commented LsFayette. (263:850). Lauritsen pointed out that through Public Law 94-142 school districts across the United States have begun to utilize educational interpreters in K-12 education. (263:877).

Lauritsen discussed the "considerable carry-over and correlation between interpreters in education, and interpreting in other settings." (263:883). Vocational rehabilitation counselors used federal monies to support the post-secondary training of their deaf clients, so a close interrelationship with the post-secondary programs occurred.

The Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973, under Title I, Section 101 (a) (9) and detailed under Section 102, required interpreters to serve deaf clients. Schroyer remarked that interpreters bridged the communication barrier. (264:493). To provide other social services; such as legal, medical, mental health, vocational rehabilitation counselors utilized interpreters from the post-secondary programs. As agencies and professional people began to understand the value of interpreters, increased utilization of this service occurred, remarked Pimentel. (199:113). The regional post-secondary programs became an interpreter referral service for the community, according to Lauritsen's testimony. (263:883).

In the seventies, Jacobs observed that the growing number, availability, and professionalism of interpreters for the deaf meant that many programs which formerly limited their appeal to hearing people began to serve the deaf population. (39:100). In addition to interpreters serving the deaf people in educational, vocational rehabilitation, legal, medical, and mental health settings, job opportunities for interpreters began to open up in recreational and cultural areas. A review of the monthly Deaf American depicted this trend with business, such as travel agencies, and insurance companies, offering interpreting services.

Sign Language Classes for Professionals

A review of the literature of the early and middle sixties depicted the efforts of the Vocational Rehabilitation Services to encourage professionals to learn sign language to better serve their clients. Conference and workshop proceedings, such as "Orientation of Social Workers to the Problems of Deaf Persons" (1963); and "Workshop on Rehabilitation Casework Standards for the Deaf" (1966). that communication training was essential to serve the deaf population. (303,323).

A survey of conference reports of the seventies portrayed that actual manual communication classes were being held at professional workshops, and in some cases were incorporated into their certification requirements. Examples of professionals receiving sign language training were found in the proceeding of "An Orientation to Deafness for Social Workers" (1975); the 49th Meeting of the Council of Executives of the American Schools for the Deaf, Inc. (1977); and "The Preparation of Psychological Service Providers to the Deaf" (1977). (319, 286, 311).

Post-secondary programs for deaf students found an acute lack of professionals with the communication skills needed to adequately service their deaf students. Employing the information of Rawlings, Trybus, and Biser, it was found that fifty-five of the sixty post-secondary programs offered manual communication classes for their instructors, counselors, and other personnel. (61).

On the elementary and secondary school level, teachers of deaf children began to learn signs as total communication became the policy of the school. The Council of Education of the Deaf in 1974 required nine semester hours of language and communication as part of the certification standards for teachers of deaf students, reported Maile. (949). In Communication Patterns and Educational Achievement of Hearing Impaired Students, Jensema and Trybus found that 61.7% of the teachers reported the use of signs in these special education classes. (174:6).

The Education for all Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (Public Law 94-142) included implications concerning sign language which have not yet been felt. According to Denton, "implementation of the law has created unparalelled activity and unprecedented tension in special education all over the country." Denton mentioned that schools were "under heavy obligation to provide training in basic communication skills not only for its faculty and staff, but for parents and pupils as well." (130:35).

Further implications of Public Law 94-142 were discussed by Schein in his article entitled, "Current Priorities in Deafness." Schein remarked that to implement the individually written education plan required by law, the services of other professionals became mandatory. For these social workers, speech therapists, audiologists, counselors, psychologists, and other personnel needed to fulfill the law, Schein commented that communication skills must become part of the certification requirements of these professionals serving deaf students. (221:167).

A mother of a deaf child, Hewes stated "I must challenge the profession to serve 100% of the deaf through total communication totally from diagnosis through death." (157:12). Any program that purports to train people who expect to come into contact with the deaf must make its graduates skilled in communication, stated Siger. (354:6). Pimentel added that "one of the most psychologically reinforcing stimuli that hearing people can emit to a deaf person is a positive effort to communicate." (319:5).

Caccamise and Jordan et al recorded the trend in services for handicapped persons (educational, vocational, counseling, etc.) as toward the use of manual communication. (112:801, 166:527). Caccamise said that this trend had been facilitated by progress in several areas, including:

1. The trend toward increased appreciation and acceptance of individual differences

2. The recognition of the importance and responsibility to fit the service or method to the individual rather than vice versa

3. Recent research findings which have yielded objective support for the positive impact of manual and simultaneous communication on the development of language and communication skills, educational achievement, and personal-social skills of hearing-impaired persons.

He concluded that this progress aided in changing attitudes towards the deaf community; more people (hearing-impaired and hearing) considered it an honor to be a member of this community. (112:801). According to Steinberg and others, the acquisition of good signing skills was "a definite enhancing factor in an applicant's quest for a job in the field of deafness." (71:x). A review of job descriptions found in the American Annals of the Deaf depicted the increasing necessity for professionals, seeking employment in the field of deafness, to have competency in sign language.

Markowicz reported that the students in sign language classes experienced the fact that learning to communicate in American Sign Language required as much time, effort, and motivation as necessary to become affluent in a spoken foreign language. (49:12). Many people have invested time in sign language classes only to discover that even the simplest conversation was beyond their ability, noted Wilbur. (34:xi). "Sign language classes usually end up convincing people," said Morgan, "that they will never be fluent enough to communicate with deaf people in the course of their work and they will need to depend on interpreters for reliable communication." (364).

Communication Skills Program

To aid in their training of professionals working with the deaf population, the Rehabilitation Services Administration turned to the organization of the deaf people themselves, the National Association of the Deaf, for help. The influence of the Communication Skills Program on the sign language upheaval has not yet been ascertained, but the scant literature on this subject indicated tremendous success.

The following two grants and their descriptions were summarized from Adler and Norris' reviews. (280:78, 316: 221). In February 1967, a $2,500 short term grant, titled "Patterns and Guidelines for a National Program of Instruction in Manual Communication" was given to the National Association of the Deaf. Its purpose was to develop standards in manual communication instruction for more effective community programs. Later that same year, a ten year grant of over one-half million was given with the title, NAD Communication Skills Program, with Terrence O'Rourke as director.

The Rehabilitation Services Administration's description of this project gave an insight into their rationale and need. This nationally administered project was to develop: effective curricula; sound pedagogic guidelines; avenues of recruitment and disseminations of information;

and provisions for administrative controls in the direction, development, and evaluation of a high quality program in teaching manual communication.

The intended scope of the Communication Skills Programs can be viewed by the Rehabilitation Services Administration's listing of people to be served. This list comprised: rehabilitation counselors, and such related personnel as psychologists, social workers, vocational instructors, psychiatrists, and others whose field of endeavor involved contact with deaf people. This necessarily included audiologists, speech pathologists, speech therapists, teachers, firemen, policemen, hospital employees, employers, co-workers, and family members, friends, and relatives of deaf people.

The Rehabilitation Services Administration concluded its description with the rationale for this project: any increase in the type and nature of rehabilitation services available to the deaf client, and effective utilization of existing services was directly related to the number of trained personnel who are able to use manual communication.

An attempt to delineate the extent to which the Communication Skills Program was instrumental in effecting rapid growth of sign language classes and interest in sign language was impossible due to other concurrent social forces, such as post-secondary programs and interpreters on television. A review of this program's community awareness projects, numerous sign language classes, and annual increase of its publications portrayed the fact that the Communication Skills Program played a significant catalytic role in the sign language upheaval of the seventies.

Sign Language Classes for Deaf Students

Prior to 1972, Moores, Stokoe, and Kohl reported that in the United States no school existed that taught sign language as an academic subject to deaf people. (185: 25, 74:25, 42:10). Ciocoucel reported that since ninety percent of deaf children were born to hearing parents and sign language was suppressed, the "signing" abilities of deaf persons ranged from "home sign" which were gestures to the formal American Sign Language used by deaf children of deaf parents. (68:279). A broader application of this article was that normal people felt that all deaf people who used hand movements automatically knew sign language just due to their deafness.

The literature suggested that the first sign language classes began at the post-secondary schools to enable these deaf students to utilize an interpreter. Basile and others reported that prior to 1973 the National Technical Institute for the Deaf had sign instruction for their deaf students on "an ad hoc basis as the need arose." (92:830).

The year that the first formal academic credit classes began for deaf students was not found, but using the 1975 Guide for College/Carrer Programs for Deaf Students, it was found that thirty-six of the forty-five programs provided manual communication training for their deaf students. (61). A comparative tabulation of the programs in the 1978 Guide to College/Career Programs for Deaf Students showed that fifty-seven of the sixty programs offered manual communication classes for their deaf students. (62). The mainstreaming of children by Public Law 94-142 into regular classes with the support services of interpreters "will require that sign language classes be established for all these deaf children," said Guidry. (360).

In Pre-College Policy and Guidelines on Manual Comcation, a survey reported that one out of three deaf adults expressed a desire for formal instruction in sign language. This book referred to the community's acceptance of their most comfortable communication mode has increased the positive self-image and pride of the deaf population in themselves and their language. (60:37). Lawrence, an attorney said that it was "the right of deaf persons to study the language 98% of them will use throughout their adult lives. (302:197).

This awareness and desire on the part of the deaf population to receive sign language instruction has been correlated by Murphy to the increasing use of interpreters. (308:144). Several people, such as Riekihos, Guidry, and Keller, in the seventies saw the need for consumer education for the deaf population, for professional interpreting services to be effective. (209:48, 36, 320:136). Murphy summarized the situation by stating that two types of education needed by the deaf population for "it is not only a matter of educating them as to interpreting, but we have to back clear up and teach them sign language." (308:144).

Sign Language Classes for Interested Others

Jones and Murphy claimed in 1974 that "the historic pattern of putting the handicapped away has denied non-handicapped persons a significant learning process." These two writers said that "sign language was thought to inhibit integration because of its singular nature. Ironically, sign language is the great facilitator of intergration" at the California State Universtiy-Northridge Campus. (165:542).

Riekehof claimed that "there are many side-benefits to the use of interpreters - both teachers and hearing students suddenly become aware of deaf persons." (21:9). The tremendous extent of public awareness caused on post-secondary program campuses was inferred by Hughes, who provided the following information. At California State University-Northridge alone, there were deaf students in four hundred different classes with an estimated twenty-five hearing students in a class on an average semester. (308:163).

The classes in sign language and interpreting were so popular that more hearing persons were enrolled than deaf persons on campus, said Jones and Murphy. (165:542). Other directors of post-secondary programs echoed that the same situation occurred on their campus. Lauritsen, speaking for four regional programs, noted that "the continued and increasing interest on the part of the hearing community in learning sign language is impressive." He added that "more than several hundred hearing persons at each of the REP's (Regional Education Programs) participate annually in sign language classes." (263:896). Sign language classes were also being offered by community agencies, churches, and other organizations. Some classes were held to meet the needs of specific groups such as parents and educators, said Cokely, but the majority of classes were for "interested others." (35:vii).

These interested others have been comprised of people of all walks of life. An audiologist, Surkis, wrote that her class was composed of a lawyer, waitress, dentist, financial executive and others whose reasons for attending varied. (242:12). Ingram referred to the "mushroomed" number of sign language classes and students in his book. According to Ingram, these courses rarely have a homogeneous group, but a mixture of parents, nurses, rehabilitation counselors, linguists, actors, and "even an occasional student who once picked up a deaf hitch-hiker and now wants to find out what sign language is all about." (38: 3, 5).

As deaf children were moved out of residential schools into community public schools, several researchers such as Bonvillian et al, Furth, and Schein recommended sign language classes for parents. (99:340, 23:201, 221:165). Peikoff remarked:

> Sign language classes are attracting many parents of deaf children, who, armed with facts, at once become realists. This new tool of communication which they have been taught to scorn enables them to get closer to their children who appreciate the newfound abilities of their parents to talk to them. (288:50).

As schools adopted the total communication philosophy, there were concurrent parental pressures to learn sign language. Gustason et al in 1976 found that 318 out of 796 schools using total communication offered sign language classes to parents. (151:531). In a 1978 report from the Office of Demographic Studies, Hensema and Trybus said that 32.1% of the parents used sign language with their children at home. (309).

By 1978 Garrestson's prediction, made ten years before, became reality. Peikoff quoted this executive director of the Council of Organizations Serving the Deaf as saying:

> Once the public grasps the basic realities of deafness as it involves communication,

> it will be possible to get signs more widely accepted. Hearing adults learn manual communications, making it easier for their deaf companions to interact and integrate in community activities. (288:50-51).

The magnitude of the sign language upheaval can be viewed by a comparison of the data provided by the National Census of the Deaf Population and Stuckless. Stuckless estimated that more hearing people knew signs than there were deaf people. (300:99). In Schein and Delk's book, The Deaf Population in the United States, the 1971 national statistics estimated that there were over 1,767,046 deaf people. (66:16).

The growth of sign language classes was roughly ascertained in 1977 by the National Association of the Deaf's Communication Skills Program, in a reivew which stated that over 2500 colleges and universities in the United States offered credit courses in sign language. Countless other sign language classes have been offered through churches, agencies, and institutions. This review, which supported Stuckless' estimate, concluded:

> The number of people with normal hearing who may have taken at least a basic course in Sign might well exceed the total population of profoundly deaf people who use Sign. (This count does not include Washoe, Noam Chimpski, and other primates.) (227:31).

Professionals in the field of deafness were surveyed in 1977; the results were forecasts of the changes expected in the next ten years. Using the Delphi Technique, these

Prickett and Hunt found that "the ten highest ranking 'likelihood' items indicate that the language of signs will continue to receive favorable attention through more sign language classes and more interpreters for the deaf." (200:376).

The vast impact of sign language classes on interpreters and their organization can only be conjectured through a review of the literature and interviews with professionals in the field.

Carlson observed that sign language classes can definitely be a steppingstone towards interpreting training for the student. (359). A sign language class often led to a student making interpreting a career choice, remarked Lupson (363). According to Rarus, these classes have strengthened the RID state chapters. (203:169). Sign language students did become acutely aware of the need for interpreters, but were usually overwhelmed that there were so very few adequately paid jobs, said Morgan. (364).

Besides sign language classes encouraging more people to enter the field of interpreting, the major impact of these classes seemed to Shroyer to be the public awareness of the importance and necessity for interpreter usage. The writer referred to the additional occupation of many interpreters as sign language teachers. According to Shroyer, this teacher role gave interpreters the opportunity to become an effective PR force and serve as a bridge allowing hearing people to cross over into the deaf community. (328:66).

Another repercussion of the sign language upheaval was discussed by King. This interpreter said the upheaval has made interpreters paranoid because the "old standard, maternalistic interpreter, only one in town," now has to compete to keep "their deaf people" who used to come to them. For the first time, the interpreter has to be good, that is to satisfy the customer who otherwise can and will go elsewhere. King felt that this paranoia is constructive for the "sign language upheaval made the interpreter have to improve himself to compete in the marketplace." She stated that if interpreters cannot take the pressure to become professional, they should get out. The profession has matured enough that "we no longer need to baby along those barely making it." (361).

No literature known as of 1978 had surveyed the repercussions in the community of these thousands of normal people who had sign language classes, but some applications have been implied.

By-Products of the Sign Language Upheaval

The results of the upheaval have been on-going, certain evidenced side-effects were in occupational, linguistical, and attitudinal areas. An overview of these side-effects was warrented for indirectly and directly they influenced the field of interpreting.

A New Profession - The Sign Language Teacher

Due to the increasing numbers of sign language classes, a new occupational field emerged. Teachers of sign language proliferated to the point that persons who were still students or had completed one course in sign language became self-appointed instructors. Interpreters at the post-secondary programs frequently became sign language instructors. In the early seventies, these interpreters requested RID to aid them in obtaining instructional materials, curricula, and testing materials. Babbini's outline for "Program for Training Interpreters" in the 1965 manual on interpreting did not provide the detailed assistance that these teachers of sign language needed. (278:105-128).

RID's recommendations for sign language teacher certification were proposed at the 1972 National Association of the Deaf's Convention. The Communication Skills Program, a branch of the National Association of the Deaf, got involved in developing RID recommendations into a feasible plan. At RID 3rd Convention held in Seattle in 1974, the members passed a motion that RID, in cooperation with the National Association of the Deaf-Communication Skills Program, explore the feasibility of establishing a certification program for manual communication teachers.

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In 1975, the Sign Instructor's Guidance Network, a National organization, was formed for teachers of sign language.

The purpose of the Sign Instructor's Guidance Network were:

1. To provide an effective avenue for the exchange of information on methods and materials among teachers of Sign;

2. To provide a closer relationship between teachers of Sign, the language of deaf people, and the national organization which represents deaf people;

3. To arrange for the upgrading of teachers of Sign through workshops and other short-term training;

4. To develop certification standards and procedures for teachers of Sign;

5. To develop a national directory of teachers of Sign as a reference source of schools and agencies.

During the 1976 National Association for the Deaf Convention in Houston, the members of the Sign Instructor's Guidance Network met to formulate policies and procedures, standards for certification, and election of officers. Evaluation tests were given at this meeting and certificates awarded. The growth of this organization as a certifying body can be viewed in the revised 1978 Standards and Criteria for S.I.G.N. in Appendix F.

The establishment of Sign Instructor's Guidance Network was a first step in developing sign language teaching as a profession, but this organization should be allied with other professions, said Ingram in 1977. Ingram recognized that until training programs and certification requirements become mandatory, the situation has remained that teaching sign language was often a "pastime...amateurs interested in picking up a few extra bucks." (38:33). In the late seventies an awareness grew that the interpreters, deaf people, and signers were not qualified teachers, said Ingram and Hoemann. These authors both commented that sign language teachers should be as qualified as teachers of any other modern languages with a knowledge of linguistic structure and the techniques of second language teaching. (38:3:34:ix).

Teacher Materials and Learning Opportunities

Ingram's book, Principles and Procedures of Teaching Sign Language, published in 1977, and Hoemann's book Communicating With Deaf People: A Resource Manual for Teachers and Students of American Sign Language, published in 1978 depicted the changing role of the teacher of sign language. (38, 34). A review of the publication listings showed that the only materials offered in the early seventies were basically sign language pictorial textbooks for students with a couple of teacher manuals such as Kirchner's Play It By Sign: Games in Sign Language. During this period, a professional quarterly journal, Sign Language Studies, emerged in 1972 although its major emphasis was linguistical, it pertained to sign language teachers.

After the Sign Instructor's Guidance Network was formed in 1975, other projects were initiated by the Communication Skills Program to fulfill their goal to train sign language teachers and upgrade their skills. Through an interagency effort, in 1977 the First National Symposium on Sign Language Research and Teaching was held in Chicago. This event, which brought the theoreticians and practitioners together, was such a success that it became an annual event.

Realizing the need for actual training programs for sign language teachers, the Communication Skills Program and the Sign Instructor's Guidance Network succeeded in getting three credit classes offered in the summer of 1978, through Gallaudet College. Three additional courses and a practicum were planned for the summer of 1979. Through the activities of the Communication Skills Program, the occupational field of the sign language interpreter has become more professional.

In October of 1978, Schreiber announced that the Communication Skills Program had received a grant from the Rehabilitation Services Administration to develop a consortium of sign language training programs. (224:22). The reception of grant monies for this purpose implied the importance and continuation of sign language classes. A broader application can be made that this grant depicted a realization that sign language training programs, i.e. the National Interpreter Training Consortium, which also has been supported by this agency.

A survey of the monthly job position openings published in the American Annals of the Deaf showed that job opportunities have expanded for the teacher of sign language to include: sign language researchers, authors of sign language textbooks and teacher guides, teachers of sign language teachers, coordinators of resource materials projects, developers of audio-visual curriculum and instructional aids, and administrators of sign language programs. These expanded opportunities verified Caccamise's statement that the growing use, appreciation, and understanding sign language has led, and should continue to lead to new job opportunities for both hearing-impaired and hearing persons. (112:802).

Bilingualism

The acceptance, knowledge, and uses of American Sign Language or a modified form of it by professionals led to an attitudinal acceptance of sign as a language, wrote Vernon, although research by Stokoe had proven it to be a full language ten years before. (250:15, 74). The first reference in the literature to the bilingualism of the deaf population was at a conference on sign languages in 1969 wrote Stokoe. (276:4). This bilingual frame of reference towards sign language was mentioned by Kannapell, DiPietro, Schlesinger and Meadow. (167:2, 132:8, 67:38). Kannapell added that the acceptance of sign language removed the stigma of deaf persons which has been intimately related to their language. (167:10).

In 1975 Merrill, in a paper presented at the International Congress on Education of the Deaf, stated that the courts in the United States have extended the right to be taught in the native language to non-English speaking Americans and "this should apply to deaf children as well." In this speech Merrill said:

> The total subjection of a deaf child to a means of communication which he cannot understand in a school setting is not only unprofessional and usually ineffective, but it could be well viewed as a violation of the rights of another human being. (181:30).

In the seventies, the real issue became not oralism or manualism, but "the issue is whether the true bilingual situation of the deaf--Sign and English is to be recognized," wrote Stokoe. (238:25).

Stokoe published an article in 1976 entitled, "The Study and Use of Sign Language", in which he referred to the linguists, sociolinguists, and other professional groups joining the deaf population to ask for sign language in the schools. This article reported that in the seventies educators began "to treat Sign as a prime educational medium and as a language: which made the deaf individual a sharer in the American culture and a member of subculture with its own pride and self-awareness, (238:1-2).

Gustason supplemented Stokoe's idea by her statement that since most deaf adults use sign language "anyone who wants to reach them socially, educationally, or psychologiccally should at the very least respect and accept this language." (316:84-85).

A review of literature in the seventies depicted the shortcomings in achieving a true bilingual educational system for deaf children. Jensema and Trybus in the Office of Demographic Studies attempted in 1978 to research the communication patterns used in the schools. These researchers found assessment difficult for teachers used a variety of sign systems with additional diversity in the frequency of usage. (309:6-7).

Garreston surveyed 107 schools as to significant changes noted since the adoption of total communication. His findings showed the following positive changes as reported by the schools: 51.9% speech; 73.8% English usage; 75.7% overall communication; 81.3% self-concept; and 72.8% effective growth. Garreston, like Jensema and Trybus noted the existing national variation in the quality of sign language usage. (300:93).

The originating source for the puch for bilingualism to be recognized in deaf education was the Bilingual

Education Act which was signed into law by President Johnson on 2 January 1968. In an article entitled, "Bilingualism: A New Direction in the Education of the Deaf," Kannapell argued for the inclusion of deaf children under the provisions of this law. (167).

This movement toward bilingual education for deaf students was somewhat altered in 1975 with Public Law 94-142. This law mandated "the least restrictive environment" which has been often viewed as mainstreaming the deaf children into normal classes with support personnel such as interpreters. The usage of interpreters provided a variation to the Bilingual Education Act, for the teachers themselves were not required to employ both languages.

Nevertheless, the acceptance of sign language into the schools led to the need for it to depict English, whether employed by the teachers of special education classes or schools for deaf children or by interpreters in mainstreaming situations.

Variations in Terminology

Although this paper has dealt with American Sign Language, this inclusion of the variations was needed to portray the effects of the sign language upheaval, which subsequently influenced interpreting. These language variations were produced due to the increased involvement of English-speaking people with the hearing-impaired population.

Sign systems were reviewed by Stokoe, in "Sign Language Diglossia", in terms of a continuum, ranging from American Sign Language to Manual English, a manual representation of English. (235). Caccamise and others claimed that placement of these various systems along a continuum was "precarious at best." (114:897).

New Sign Systems

With the augmented interest and study of sign language from linguists, sociologists, educators, and psychologists in the characteristics and possibilities of sign, a number of modified or new sign systems have developed, noted Garretson. (300:89-90). The literature of the seventies was satiated with references to these new sign language systems and codes. Excellent sources which explained the distinctions between the systems, were found in Recent Developments in Manual English, Cokely's "Readings for Sign Instructors Guidance Network Certification," and Appendix C and D of an article entitled, "Signs and Manual Communication Systems: Selection, Standardization, and Development," by Caccamise and others. (301, 336, 114:897-8).

"A great deal of confusion exists in the terminology used for sign languages," said Caccamise et al. (114:897). This confusion of terminology led to the formation of a special committee in 1978 by RID to clarify the terms which applied to interpreting field.

Interpreters were often requested to translate verbatim by some highly educated deaf people, but Ingram said this term, translation, was "widely misused." This writer defined the process of re-creating the message from English into manually coded English as transliteration (two forms of the same language). (308:ix).

Ingram reasoned that a true manual English was an impossibility because the spoken, not signed aspect of English, was an inherent characteristic. (308:vii). A more comprehensive reason to support the term, transliteration, was provided by Stokoe who said, "linguistics...has made it perfectly clear that no word-for-word translation of one language into another is possible." (75:7). A different approach was used by Cokely and Markowiez in their research. These researchers explained that these new systems representing English were codes, not languages at all because they were artificially produced. (336:n.p., 49:8).

"Interpreters in the classroom need to be able to interpret using various kinds of sign language systems," said Stangarone. (308:161). This new responsibility of interpreters was also mentioned by Kirchner, Stokoe, Young, and DePietro. (308:174, 236:4, 308:161, 132:8). Another language which developed in 1975 and needed interpreters was an international sign language named GESTUNO. (282). More requests for transliteration occurred in the late sixties and seventies as usage of interpreters in professional and educational settings increased. The need to learn these new manually coded English systems further necessitated specialized training for interpreters. The increased interaction of the deaf and hearing communities simultaneously augmented the employment of interpreters and complicated their jobs.

Accelerated Usage of Pidgin Sign Language

Pidgin sign language evolved naturally from the interaction of the deaf and hearing communities. Smith claimed that Pidgin sign language always existed due to the deaf people's exposure to English through schools, their hearing children, and ministers. (366).

The existence and evolutionary processes of Pidgin sign language was explained in the literature. In his book, Sociology of Language, Fishman said that "any direct interaction occurring between members of separate speech communities, who differ in mother tongue, contributes for the development of Pidgin languages." (19:98). Woodward specially named Pidgin Sign English as the result of the interface between two speech communities. (135:8).

Bornstein noted that "there is no possible way to use one language to represent another without changing the first language." (68:350). In this same publication, Bornstein noted that especially educators and parents were "much more likely to accept the logic and utility" of a system resembling English than Sign. "It is not surprising, therefore, that in the educational settings, the Pidgin Sign English variety is usually much closer to Sign English than to Sign." (68:335-347). Hoemann remarked that deaf people used a pidginization of sign "out of deference to the likelihood that the hearing person is not proficient in Sign." (35:57). This likelihood, mentioned by Hoemann, was a real probability, thought Bornstein who wrote that it was unlikely that hearing adults would become skillful with sign language if their first exposure to it was as adults. (68:349).

The accelerated usage and evolution of Pidgin Sign Language through the contact of two separate language communities portrayed the extent of interaction which occurred in the last decade. The existence of Pidgin Sign English can be viewed in light of Hertzler's definition; as quoted by Anderson, that language is:

> The index or even inventory, of sociocultural life of a language community at a given time, a precise, accurate and highly revealing record of its ramified sociocultural history, a guide in indicating the boundaries of the extent of a culture, even in a cultural group. (58:152).

Tervoort's study probed the evolution of Pidgin Sign English which he termed as the result of bilingual interference, the influence of one language upon another. He said that this is caused by speakers from different linguist-communities meeting regularly with each other. This study pointed out that this language interchange contrasted with all other known occurrences for it dealt with "the coexistence of a basically acoustic system with a basically visual system." Tervoort emphasized that this interference had produced "a unique sort of bilingualism because of the fundamental difference between acoustic and visual communication." (68:169-239). A different approach was used in the research of Bellugi and Fischer. These researchers in their comparison of English and sign language found that this was the only bilingual co-occurrence known. This "effect of producing two languages at the same time" by on person was totally unique. (95:18).

The following paragraph on the sociological and linguistic characteristics of Pidgin Sign Language were summarized from Erting and Woodward's research entitled, "Sign Language and the Deaf Community: A Sociolinguistic Profile." (135:7-11). Pidgin Sign English developed as a result of contact between the deaf and hearing communities to allow for minimal communication. Pidgin Sign Language combined characteristics of both English and American Sign Language. This language variety has been viewed as more prestigious and respectable because hearing people have equated language with English. Therefore, the majority of the society being hearing felt that anything approaching English was better.

Erting and Woodward said that Pidgin Sign Language has been the language variation chosen by most hearing and deaf people in their interaction, especially for communicating in administrative, education, and more formal settings.

As analysis of the data found by Bellugi and Fisher indirectly depicted the reason that most interpreters in educational settings did not use the manually coded English systems. Bellugi and Fisher found that virtually the same information is conveyed at virtually the same rate by American Sign Language and English. A major difference between the signed and spoken messages was that twice as many words as signs were used. (95:179). The use of Bellugi and Fisher's findings that Signed English would have required twice as much time supported the predomininant choice of Pidgin Sign Language by interpreters in post-secondary settings, as observed by Smith and Guidry. (366, 360).

The sign language upheaval led to increased interaction between the two language communities, therefore there was a corresponding greater usage of Pidgin Sign Language. Bornstein noted that as Pidgin Sign English entered the classroom, it could "certainly be found outside the classroom," although American Sign Language was the principal social language of the majority of deaf people. (68:349). Like Bornstein, Lupson, Stangarone, and Morgan noticed the increased use of English word order and initialization by the deaf people themselves. (363, 367, 364). Hoemann discussed that the increased use of initialization to reference a word depicted some bilingual competence. (37:17-18). Although Markowicz wrote that the new sign systems were not used by the deaf people to converse among themselves, some assimilation of aspects of Pidgin Sign Language into American Sign Language may have begun to occur. (49:8).

"I feel that American Sign Language is losing its purity," said Trout, "due to educational settings which stress English." (368). Stangarone also saw the deaf population as becoming more English-oriented in their sign language. He stated that since "total communication's acceptance in the school system was eight to nine years ago, we are beginning to see the first graduates." Stangarone commented that he saw the impact of English on American Sign Language emerging as 50-50. (367).

These observations highlighted the warning of Schlesinger and Namir, that sign language needed to be studied before spoken language intruded and left its imprint. (68:6).

Throughout the development of sign language, repeated requests for standardization and futile attempts to do so were recorded in the literature. Smith referred to the desire to standardize the sign language of the deaf population as "age old." (366).

Natural Standardization

A natural evolutionary standardization towards more language unity began as residential schools were established, remarked Cronneberg. (76:307). Hill added that the factors of increasing social complexity and increasingly complicated technology interacted with the developing language capacity "in a very intricate feedback relationship." (84:187).

According to Stokoe in 1969, the trend towards a more standardized sign language was occurring naturally in the deaf population due to: more widespread literacy, broader communication among different regional and social segments of the community; and "a desire for a full-fledged national language as an attribute of antonomy or sovereignty." (235:17-18). This natural standardization process was supported by Frishberg's research findings that "American Sign Language undergoes natural historical changes like all oral languages." (144:715). Other researchers, Battison and Jordan, found sign language structure and communicative functions comparable to spoken languages. (93:53) A possible snag in the natural standardization process was posed by Alterman. No satisfactory written form of sign language was in use which could contribute to "unspecificity in reference or imprecisions that are less common in the 'complex' written languages." (87:518).

To determine the educational potentialities of sign language, Schlesinger and Namir questioned sign language's impoverishment as due to inherent limitations or "because it was never called on to meet the demands of more advanced pursuits." These writers said that if the latter was the case, sign language "can surely be rectified by amplifying the language." (68:6). Cicourel believed that any limitations in sign languages were "inherent in the cultural development of the deaf and not in the structure of sign languages." (68:310). Caccamise et al pointed out that as educational opportunities expanded for the deaf population, deaf Americans developed, learned and used an wider vocabulary to match their new arising need for it. (114:879).

In his article, "The Study and Use of Sign Language," Stokoe made the point that standard was not a matter of legislation but of currency. This article explained that the type of standardization by deaf people was different from others in the literature. Deaf leaders of organizations, such as the Jewish Deaf Association, National Association of the Deaf, and its Communication Skills Program, discussed standardization from the viewpoint of allowing the natural language change to occur and to recognize the local, puristic, provincial variations in American Sign Language. Deaf people's discussions on standard were often a reaction to the makers of handbooks and teachers of sign language, hearing adults mainly, whose descriptions of ''the right way' to make signs frequently departed from the concepts underlying the signs. (238:21). The deaf community began to support the need for sign standardization, but like Stokoe mentioned this development seemed to be a reaction to the hearing people's involvement.

Smith, the editor of Deaf American, said "some kind of standardization is overdue...too many people and organizations are riding off in all directions." (230:2). Bornstein, Crystal, Craig, Caccamise and others noted that the multitude of sign language books and instructional materials were being written by hearing people for a hearing market, so Signed English and Pidgin Sign English were emphasized. (68:344-6; 163-166, 114:880). As sign language was re-accepted into educational systems, organized attempts were made towards standardization. Consistency was recognized as a critical factor for efficient, effective communication and language development, stated Gustason. (301:38-48).

Planned Standardization

The acceptance of sign language in educational settings seemed to have triggered questions, research, and plans of action towards structured standardization. From the very first usage of sign language in a school system, an attempt was made to standardize it by Abble Carlos Miguel de L'Epree in 1755, recorded Moores. This record showed that L'Epree developed what he called "methodical" signs to represent an expanded vocabulary and to adapt the natural sign language of his deaf pupils to French syntax and morphology. (52:42).

From the early beginnings of RID, the interpreters at the 1965 Follow-Up-Workshop discussed the issue, and felt that the summer 1965 curriculum workshop would make a substantial contribution in the direction of standardization of both sign language and instruction of the same. These numbers motioned to encouraged captioned films for the deaf to become involved in standardization. (279:43).

In the seventies, the literature depicted some pros and cons towards planned standardization. Stuckless regarded this development as positive. This writer said that since specialists, particularly linguists and psycholinguists, have studied sign language, the working vocabulary has increased. According to Stuckless, as more hearing people learned and used sign language, "its usefullness to deaf people as a medium within their communication repertoire should increase correspondingly." This author felt that "a society ultimately determines the languages and communication media it will use." (300:99). Two uninvestigated questions were posed by Crystal and Craig concerning the possible problems of increasing the vocabulary of signs. These researchers said that this increase would surely make it difficult to retain an unambiguously iconic relationship between referent and sign or for visual memory to cope with the number of distinctions if we made signing comparable to speech. (68:149).

A negative reaction to attempts at standardization was expressed by Kannapell. This writer bluntly said, "efforts at standardization usually mean efforts of standardizing a system of signed English." In this article, Kannapell reported that persons working at standardization have failed because they were: in relative isolation from one another; not native speakers; and did not apply the basic structural and linguistic principles of American Sign Language. The results have been neither a standardization of signed English nor ASL, but a variety of systems of signed English. (167:10).

Kannapell probably unknowingly, echoed the words of Sicard in 1816, as quoted by Lane. Sicard, L'Epree's successor, wrote that "as a foreigner cannot teach a Frenchman the French language, so one who speaks should not get involved in inventing signs." (171:5). In spite of the pros and cons in the literature regarding standardization, two groups that strongly favored and consistently worked toward standardization were the educators and interpreters. As sign language became an acceptable educational tool in preschool, elementary, secondary, and post-secondary schools in the late sixties and seventies, "mass confusion" has been the result, said Guidry. The reason she gave for this confusion was that individual schools and/or classes created their own signs to fit their purposes. In most cases in an educational setting, the purpose was to transmit English which led to not only new signs, but new signed English systems. (360).

A review of the listings of text books, dictionaries, and instructional materials, on sign language published by the National Association of the Deaf, Gallaudet College, and Joyce Motion Pictures, Inc. clearly depicted the confused situation of the seventies. Instead of these published materials being a standardizing influence as viewed by Fishman, language variations flourished. (19:20).

Educational programs identified sign standardization as a need in the seventies. According to a survey by Jordan et al, of the 565 programs using total communication, 340 had attempted sign standardization and 87 more had plans to do so. (166:531). In a small survey by Garretson, 107 of the 122 educational programs that responded expressed a need for a "single, standardized sign system." (300:93).

Researchers, themselves, stated that "terminology needs to be clarified and standardized so that comparisons of techniques and systems will be both useful and valid," according to Goodman and others. (150:106). Similar confusion in terminology was experienced by Fristoe and Lloyd who commented that respondents to their survey showed awareness of the difference in the sign systems or they were unaware of the importance of the differences. (146:101).

From the viewpoint of an interpreter in educational settings, Kirchner reported the need for selection and standardization. His speech was paraphrased because it presented a clear overview of the situation of interpreters, also applicable to educators. One of the challenges was the paucity of educational signs for classroom interpreters, such as what to do with complicated terms in a computer class, was an example. We developed new signs, but like the staff at the National Technical Institute for the Deaf, are afraid to expand. We don't want to duplicate the efforts of others or confuse deaf people which would create chaos. Perhaps an organization which would accept the responsibility for expansion and standardization could assemble representatives from different regions to discuss problems to meet the need for new signs, and to disseminate the information. "A clearinghouse for sign language might be the answer, because the current sign vocabulary is inadequate for verbatim classroom translation." (320:67).

Concerning standardization, Guidry said, "I don't see it happening in my lifetime, but Texas has managed to standardize the signs used in its state school systems by the development of a text, Preferred Signs." (360).

Caccamise and others credited this statewide project for the deaf in Texas in 1975 as leading to and/or reinforcing the nation-wide project initiated at the National Technical Institute for the Deaf later that year. (114:880). Caccamise et al began the first major undertaking to select, standardize and develop a technical sign vocabulary. The project's goal was the establishment and maintenance of a national technical sign bank to serve the communication needs of all post-secondary deaf students, their instructors, and interpreters. (108:44).

In 1978 Caccamise and others expanded the original project to include all settings. In addition, input from regional representatives from all over the United States were gathered at a meeting held in December of 1978. This project aimed at the selection, standardization, and development of signs with emphasis on current sign usage and the structural linguistic characteristics of American Sign Language and English. (114:877-902). One representative, King, commented that the National Technical Institute for the Deaf's project was "to try to standardize our collection processes rather than trying to standardize a living viable language." (361). The final outcome of this national standardization project were not yet disseminated, but educators, interpreters, and the deaf population may have benefitted if the results have helped achieve the goal of clearer communication.

Other Uses of Sign Language

Moores stated that in all probability sign language's increasing public exposure in public school systems, on television, and in the theater "will extend its use to populations other than the deaf." (52:185). In the seventies, sign language was employed by non-handicapped persons experiencing situational communication impairments. According to Stokoe, some special uses of sign language were in noisy locations, underwater, in airless space, and in communication between humans and chimpanzees. (238:4). Crystal and Craig provided a clear distinction between this use of sign language and the signaling used in sports, entertainment, and other professions. (68:157-161).

Research combined with the sign language upheaval led to the use of sign language with non-deaf people with permanent communication impairments. According to Stuckless, Wilbur, Caccamise and Johnson, manual communication has been found to be beneficial to communication and language development of a variety of special learners, besides the deaf and deaf-blind people. Sign language has had success as a communication mode for persons with motor problems, and persons labeled mentally retarded, asphasic and/or autistic. (357: n.p., 46:12, 111:106).

Bonvillian et al said that the work of Gardner and

,Gardner teaching Washoe, a chimpanzee to sign, coupled with the increased interest in linguistics and problems of disadvantaged children in the sixties, stimulated the research and application of sign language to other groups. (99:322). Elder and Bergman felt that the reason for the acceptance of non-verbal communication was that in the seventies professional therapeutic objectives shifted from their emphasis from the development of speech as the primary communication made to the development of any communication. (134:107).

Research supported the use and success of sign language with non-deaf people who had communication impairments. Hewes found that "pictures appear to be processed for certain purposes more rapidly than their verbal signs, spoken or written." A visual representation lasted seconds longer than one received auditorily. This researcher also discussed other neurolinguistic studies of the manual movements contralateral to the hemisphere involved in speech. (33:492-495).

In the literature, an article entitled "Experiment in Language of Signs for the Retarded" was written in 1970. A day center used sign language with some success with a retarded deaf child, then this led to their use of signs with other non-deaf children such as those handicapped with Down's Syndrome, emotional disturbed retardation, and autism. (136:16)

By the middle and late seventies, numerous articles and books began to appear. In two major works, Fristoe's Language Intervention Systems for the Retarded and Lloyd's Communication Assessment and Intervention Strategies, both authors separetely noted that during the past five years there was a dramatic increase in the use of non-speech communication systems with persons having severe communication impairements but essentially normal hearing. (22) (46). Fristoe and Lloyd is a joint effort supplemented and literature with an excellent reference source in 1977 entitled, "Manual Communication for the Retarded and others with Severe Communication Impairement: A Resource List." (145).

The following year, these two researchers co-authored another article, "A Survey of the Use of Non-Speech Systems with the Severely Communication Impaired," Fristoe and Lloyd found the sign communication was used predominantly with autistic asphasic, apraxic, cerebral palsied, mentally retarded, and deaf handicapped clients served by the speech and hearing centers responding to the survey. (146:102).

Goodman and others, using the addresses provided by Fristoe, surveyed the Speech Pathology and Audiology section of the American Association of Mental Deficiency. The findings published in their article, "Results of a National Survey of Sign Language Programs in Special Education" showed that "signing is an increasing popular language tool in special education programs." (150:106).

Twenty-eight states out of the thirty-three surveyed responded that signs were used with the severely retarded, 79%; the moderately retarded, 72%; cerebral palsied, 56%; profoundly retarded, 53%; and autistic, 42%. In addition to communication benefits, a high percentage of non-language benefits were reported from the use of signs. These were: increased attention span, 76%; increased motivation, 78%; fewer behavior problems, 53%; and seven programs indicated that articulation improved as a benefit of signing.

Other noteworthy findings were that four out of five of these programs were three years or younger, and over 44% of the clients were five years of age or younger--which Goodman et al predicted as a sign of continued increase in the future. (150:104-106). A broader application of these findings was the acceptance of sign language as a communication mode; its implementations as a tool with the communication impaired; and its usage with such young children portrayed the trend of the seventies.

Another significant fact was that at these speech and hearing centers, 84% of the teaching staffs supported and were receptive to the idea of clients using signs, while 74% of the speech and hearing staffs were receptive. (150:106). This acceptance of signs to aid all communication impaired people by speech and hearing specialists was incomplete dichotomy to its prior history. Garrett referred so speech and hearing centers as the "antithesis" of sign language in the past concerning service to deaf clients. (149:24). Siger and Jacobs also noted this drastic change in attitude by speech and hearing specialists. (354:6, 39:38).

Besides the usage of sign language by normal people in communication impaired situations and by personnel serving the non-deaf communication impaired, one other use was as physical therapy. Vidrine employed sign language and fingerspelling as physical therapy with a burn patient, which was found to be medically acceptable, as therapeutic. A side-effect observed was its psychological value for it increased motivation compared to the standard exercise procedures. (359:1-3). The results of this isolated case study may be substantiated in the future by indepth research studies into the use of sign language as physical therapy for patients requiring arm and hand manipulations to improve or regain dexterity. Other applications of sign language with the non-deaf may be predicted to occur if the trend of the sign language upheaval and its repercussions continues into the 1980's.

Interagency Cooperation

Vocational Rehabilitation Services has been the catalyst within the field of deafness as seen by a review of literature. Through its financial support of research, programs, projects, and workshops, this federal-state agency has managed not only to stimulate the sign language upheaval; but to channel its developing interrelationships into several cooperative agreements among agencies serving the deaf population. An outstanding exception in the 1970's to the movement towards interagency cooperation has been RID, an organization fostered by Vocational Rehabiliation Services. At the 1965 RID workshop the members felt that their organization was "unready at this point to consider affiliation with other organizations." (279:40). Thirteen years later, RID members voted to remain an independent organization, and did not accept the National Association of the Deaf's Mutual Alliance Plan.

Smith proferred this reason for RID abstinence from affiliation. This interpreter said that in the past when interpreters have attempted to affiliate they slid into an interpreter's role, not a participant's. She further commented that other RID members felt that RID was for interpreters, not for deaf people so the organization for interpreters has avoided affiliation with the National Association of the Deaf. (366). Like Smith, Stangarone reiterated that "joint conventions would not be for us because our interpreters would be interpreting. (367).

A different reason was given by Guidry, the vice-president of the Louisiana RID chapter. This interpreter said that RID has been "afraid to relinguish the stage; deaf people will take away the limelight." This RID member felt that it was a power struggle for both the National Association of the Deaf and RID wanted to be "top dog".(360).

According to Guidry, a resolution of this conflict was needed for RID cannot stand alone. Her reasoning that RID should join with the National Association of the Deaf was that "without the deaf consumers we are nowhere" and "like the hand feeding the mouth we have to work together." (360). Another RID member, Lupson, echoed and broadened this sentiment by stating, "all organizations that work towards the same goals should work together." (363).

Although RID has maintained a stand of no direct affiliation, the National RID and its state chapters have worked very closely with other organizations serving the deaf population. RID has cooperated with the National Interpreter Training Consortium and its members institutions, the National Association of the Deaf, the Professional Rehabilitation Workers with the Adult Deaf, the parent organizations, and other groups.

These cooperative activities, in addition to RID's independent accomplishments, verified Shroyer's statement that ultimately all of the efforts of RID were on behalf of deaf people. (308:15). Pimental saw RID's "very reason for being" as "to promote the inclusion and to upgrade the participation of deaf people in all areas of life."(199:119).

An undercurrent trend within RID was revealed in the May 1976 issure of Interprenews. This issue to its members stated in bold-faced print that "it is past time for us to cling reminiscently to visions of times when we were all 'experts in everything'." An article, "RID Reflections On a Decade of Deaf Movement Action," concluded this idea that the time was long overdue for the organization and its members to "step forward and define territorial boundaries in areas where we have proven we can perform a service." The final sentence was "RID stands ready to lend a hand to other organizations." (282, 208:38).

Whter RID could have benefited or provided better services through direct affiliation can only be speculated. Indirectly, RID has served all organizations by its Directory of Members, published by the Vocational Rehabilitation Services. An interesting note was that RID itself did not have regional delineations, the 1978 directories were regional using the same regional demarcations as Vocation Rehabilitation Services. (267).

Through the Model State Plan for the Vocation Rehabilitation of Deaf Clients and the implementation of the 1978 Vocational Rehabilitation Acts, RID may be allowed to remain independent, but indications were that further cooperative efforts were to be asked of the national organization and its chapters.

The Model State Plan for the Deaf, "a beacon light", provided a plan for comprehensive service to the deaf population through coordination between all state agencies, stated Hirschi. (90:33). Purvis viewed the full utilization of the Model State Plan as "including better, more extensive use of interpreters and meaningful certification of interpreters." (90:41).

The Model State Plan encouraged the establishment of interpreter training programs in each state, the involvement of RID State Chapters on each state's Advisory Council on Deafness, and interpreter usage by all Vocational Rehabilitation agencies and the ones from which this agency purchased services. A through reference source to the Model State Plan was edited by Schein in the Journal of Rehabilitation of the Deaf, November 1973. (324).

Besides the implementation of the Model State Plan and the enforcement of Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (Section 501, 502, 503, 504), another situation which has involved RID was the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1978 with its laws to establish twelve national interpreter training centers, and an interpreter referral service in each state.

Two successful large-scale interagency agreements were initiated by the National Association of the Deaf. In June 1977 this organization proposed the Mutual Alliance Plan for the following reasons:

1. The overall goals of all organizations service the deaf are harmonious and are aimed at improving the lives of all deaf and hearing impaired citizens of the United States and of the world.

2. These goals can best be met with a united effort of organizations which have previously been working independently.

3. A united effort will prevent duplication of efforts and waste of precious time and money, and will immediately benefit all members of participating organizations.

4. The Plan will serve as a model to encourage organizations working toward the same goals to join in the Plan.

The second accomplishment was the purchase of the Halex House in Washington, D.C. which housed the National Association of the Deaf and rented to other organizations in 1978. Schreiber noted that by October of that year, these organizations moved in to share facilities, equipment, and information: Deaf Community Analysts, Inc.; International Catholic Deaf Association; Teletypewriters for the Deaf, Inc.; American Deafness and Rehabilitation Association (previously called Professional Rehabilitation Workers with the Adult Deaf); National Association for Hearing and Speech Action; and Phonics, Inc.

According to Schreiber, other organizations showed interest in the Halex House and the Mutual Alliance Plan. (224:23). The RID decided to move into this building in 1979. Through a $15,000 grant made available by the National Association of the Deaf has been advertising for a full-time interpreter/public relations person, said Stangerone. (367).

These various developing interrelationships between organizations serving the deaf population led to "groups strong enough to push for protective legislation since they feel that the loss of one man's rights touches and affects every man in a free society," said Gilbert. (302:i).

Chapter four was presented to provide a description of the visibility of sign language through its use by the deaf population and interpreters and the subsequent repercussions. A sign language upheaval occurred in the seventies which had a multitude of side-effects on RID and other organizations serving deaf people. In addition to affecting the organizations, the sign language upheaval caused linguistic, occupational, and attitudinal changes which were discussed. Chapter five provided the summary of this collected data, conclusions based on the synthesis of this information, and recommendations.

V. GENERAL SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

As gestures evolved into sign language over the centuries, societal factors accepted, suppressed, then re-accepted and later encouraged development. The founding of schools for deaf people promoted the growth of sign language, often unintentionally, for wherever deaf people gathered, sign language flourished.

The oral-manual controversy over communication modalities, the hundred year war, was resolved in the sixties by the acceptance of total communication. The originating source for the dominance of the oral method was for postlingually deaf children, but the purpose became thwarted. Researchers proved that the combined method advocated by Gallaudet in 1867 produce more effective communication than the sole use of either.

The arousal of social consciousness in the sixties led the public to recognize the rights of each individual to be a fully participating member of society. These social forces produced a catalytic effect on legislation, the educational system, and heightened national awareness. Concurrent research findings, destroying persistent myths about methodology, coupled with legislative action, responsive to the equal rights movement, led to changes in the educational system. The movement of deaf children from residential schools into community-centered educational settings heightened public awareness of deafness. The proximity and visibility of the communication problems of the handicap supplemented the readiness of educations and parents to accept the compromise of both methods.

The complexity and urbanization of American society had augmented the frequency and necessity of communication, so increasing demands were placed on the early communication "helpers" of the deaf population. Recognition of sign language in the 1960's led to recognition and augmented usage of the interpreters of this language.

The communication "helpers" of the past became neo-professionals with the establishment of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc., and its Code of Ethics. As the volunteerism of the past became paying occupations, a movement toward professionalism was the result. The members themselves sought to evaluate and to improve their skills to meet the multiplying demands for their services in a variety of settings. This neo-professional organization, in its fourteen years of existence, made great strides to provide and to assure quality service for the communication needs of the deaf population.

As federal legislation and its funding opened opportunities for deaf people through expanding vocational rehabilitation services, and increasing vocational and general educational programs in integrated settings, a corresponding utilization of interpreters occurred. As agencies realized the necessity of interpreting servcies to provide equal opportunities for deaf persons, a critical shortage of competent interpreters arose. To alleviate this problem, interpreter training programs profilerated.

A sign language upheaval occurred in the seventies through the efforts of Vocational Rehabilitation Services, and the visibility of sign language through interpreters and the deaf people themselves. This upheaval had a catalytic effect upon the employment, task, and role of the interpreter, which subsequently influenced the scope of their organization. Sign language classes for professionals, the deaf population itself, and interested others boomed across the nation. Other repercussions of this sign language upheaval was the emerging of a new profession, the sign language teacher, and the growth of the communication skills program which neo-organization named Sign Instructors Guidance Network.

Side-effects of this upheaval were numerous publications and materials, movement towards bilingualism in the schools serving deaf children, variations in sign language, augmented use of Pidgin Sign Language, efforts to standardize sign language, application of sign language as a tool with the non-deaf, and increased interagency cooperation.

This historical study did not lend itself to the procedure of recommendation. If this were a study of trends then projections would have been appropriate. It was not. However, there were situations within the developing profession that are worth noting.

There was a proliferation of contemporary writing. Some of it was based on research but much of it represented opinion. This was to be expected in a developing profession. It did emphasize the need for some sort of clearinghouse for the collection, storage and dissimination of information being generated daily.

In reviewing the existing literature, there evidenced a scarcity of research regarding the cognitive processing involved in interpreting, and the reception of this Communication modality. Research was lacking in predictive and evaluative instruments to assist in the selection and assessment of potential and present interpreters. Research was also needed to generate propositions or questions of casual inference about likely independent variables in the formulation, implementation, and assessment of interpreter training programs.

The study reflected the need for a better system of informing the general public with respect to the problems and need of the members of the deaf community. This was especially true as the constructive implementation of equal rights moved forward.

The depressed level of usage of certified interpreters needed to be intensively investigated in order to ascertain the degree to which this was a function of the prevailing unawareness of the normal hearing people and/or the deaf population. The date depicted that the extend and effectiveness of the usage of an interpreter was dictated by the deaf consumer and agencies employing their services. This finding stressed the needs for consumer education regarding interpreting services.

It was recommended that adequate training of all personnel serving the deaf population be provided. The recruitment of competent individuals to serve in these roles had become a critical issue. An obvious conclusion was that only through a systematic treatment of deafness from birth through death could equal rights become a reality.

APPENDIX A

CODE OF ETHICS

APPENDIX A

CODE OF ETHICS

1. The interpreter shall be a person of high moral character, honest, conscientious, trustworthy, and of emotional maturity. He shall guard confidential information and not betray confidences which have been entrusted to him.

2. The interpreter shall maintain an impartial attitude during the course of his interpreting avaoiding interjecting his own views unless he is asked to do so by a party involved.

3. The interpreter shall interpret faithfully and to the best of his ability, always conveying the thought, intent, and spirit of the speaker. He shall remember the limits of his particular function and not go beyond his responsibility.

4. The interpreter shall recognize his own level of proficiency and use discretion in accepting assignments, seeking for the assistance of other interpreters when necessary.

5. The interpreter shall adopt a conservative manner of dress upholding the dignity of the profession and not drawing undue attention to himself.

6. The interpreter shall use discretion in the matter

of accepting compensation for services and be willing to provide serives in situations where funds are not available. Arrangements should be made on a professional basis for adequate remuneration in court cases comparable to that provided for interpreters of foreign languages.

7. The interpreter shall never encourage deaf persons to seek legal or other decisions in their favor merely because the interpreter is sypathetic to the handicap of deafness.

8. In the case of legal interpreting, the interpreter shall inform the court when the level of literacy of the eaf person involved is such that literal interpretation is not possible and the interpreter is having to grossly paraphrase and restate both what is said to the deaf person and what he is saying to the court.

9. The interpreter shall attempt to recognize the various types of assistance needed by the deaf and do his best to meet the particular need. Those who do not understand the language of signs may require assistance through written communication. Those who understand manual communication may be assisted by means of translating (rendering the original presentation verbatim), or interpreting (paraphrasing, defining, explaining, or making known the will of the speaker without regard to the original language used.

10. Recognizing his need for professional improvement, the interpreter will join with professional colleagues for

the purpose of sharing new knowledge and developments, to seek to understand the implications of deafness and the deaf person's particular needs, broaden his education and knowledge of life, and develop both his expressive and his receptive skills in interpreting and translating.

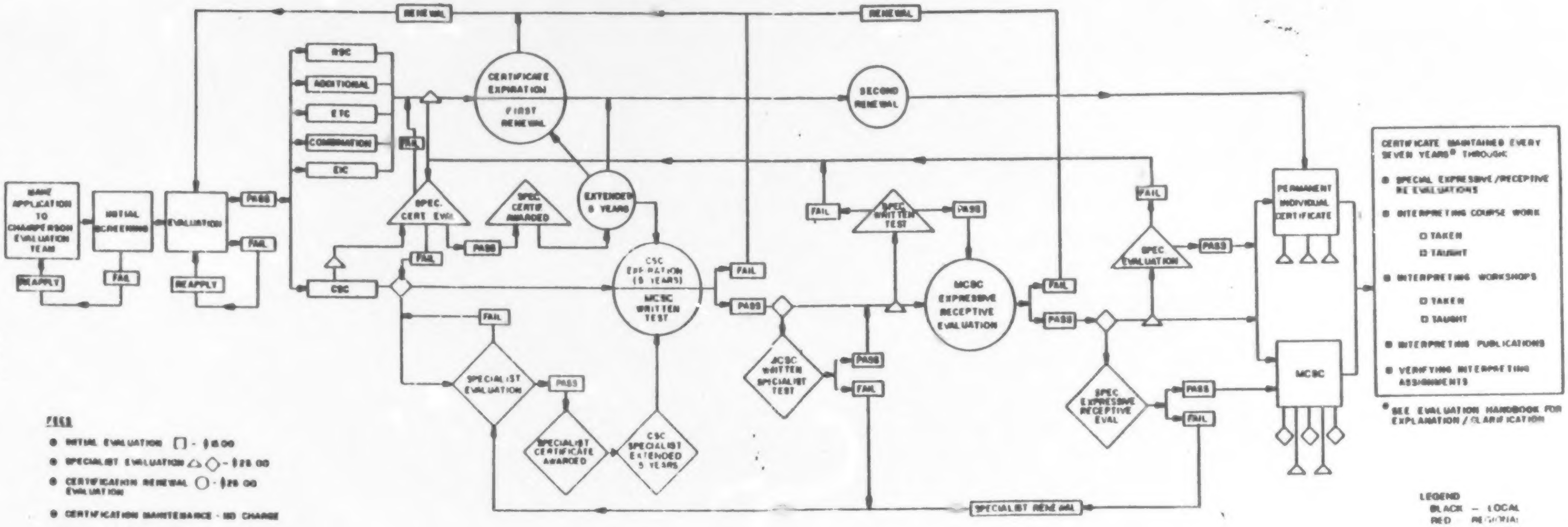
11. The interpreter shall seek to uphold the dignity and purity of the language of signs. He shall also maintain a readiness to learn and to accpt new signs, if these are necessary to understanding.

12. The interpreter shall take the responsibility of educating the public regarding the deaf whenever possible recognizing that many misunderstandings arise because of the general lack of public knowledge in the area of deafness and communication with the deaf.

APPENDIX B

SCHEMATIC
of
EVALUATION PROCESS

SCHEMATIC OF RID, INC. EVALUATION PROCESS


MAKE APPLICATION TO CHAIRPERSON EVALUATION TEAM
REAPPLY
INITIAL SCREENING
FAIL
EVALUATION
REAPPLY
PASS
FAIL
RENEWAL
RSC
ADDITIONAL
ETC
COMBINATION
EIC
CSC
FAIL
SPEC. CERT EVAL
FAIL
PASS
SPEC CERTIF AWARDED
CERTIFICATE EXPIRATION
FIRST RENEWAL
EXTENDED 5 YEARS
CSC EXPIRATION (5 YEARS)
MCSC WRITTEN TEST
FAIL
SPECIALIST EVALUATION
PASS
SPECIALIST CERTIFICATE AWARDED
CSC SPECIALIST EXTENDED 5 YEARS
FAIL
PASS
JCSC WRITTEN SPECIALIST TEST
PASS
FAIL
SPEC WRITTEN TEST
FAIL
PASS
SECOND RENEWAL
RENEWAL
MCSC EXPRESSIVE RECEPTIVE EVALUATION
FAIL
PASS
FAIL
SPEC EVALUATION
PASS
SPEC EXPRESSIVE RECEPTIVE EVAL
PASS
FAIL
SPECIALIST RENEWAL
PERMANENT INDIVIDUAL CERTIFICATE
MCSC

CERTIFICATE MAINTAINED EVERY SEVEN YEARS* THROUGH

- SPECIAL EXPRESSIVE/RECEPTIVE RE-EVALUATIONS
- INTERPRETING COURSE WORK
  - ☐ TAKEN
  - ☐ TAUGHT
- INTERPRETING WORKSHOPS
  - ☐ TAKEN
  - ☐ TAUGHT
- INTERPRETING PUBLICATIONS
- VERIFYING INTERPRETING ASSIGNMENTS

*SEE EVALUATION HANDBOOK FOR EXPLANATION/CLARIFICATION

FEES

- INITIAL EVALUATION ▢ - $15.00
- SPECIALIST EVALUATION △ ◇ - $25.00
- CERTIFICATION RENEWAL ○ - $25.00 EVALUATION
- CERTIFICATION MAINTENANCE - NO CHARGE
- RE-EVALUATION ▢ - $15.00

LEGEND
BLACK – LOCAL
RED – REGIONAL
BLUE – NATIONAL

NOTE:
DURING THE LAST YEAR OF A CURRENT CERTIFICATION THE PROCESS CAN BEGIN FOR RENEWAL CERTIFICATION OR CERTIFICATION MAINTENANCE

APPENDIX C

REVISED

CODE OF ETHICS

RID Code of Ethics with Guidelines

Interpreting shall refer to interpreting or transliterating from sign to speech, from speech to sign, or from speech to speech.

Interpreters:

1. Shall keep all interpreted and assignment-related information strictly confidential.
    a. Interpreters must not reveal information about any interpreting assignment, including the fact that an assignment is being done. Even the most seemingly innocuous information could be damaging in the wrong hands. To avoid this possibility, and the reponsibility which goes with it, interpreters must not say anything about any interpreting job.
    b. If a problem arises with the deaf person and the interpreter feels a need to discuss it with some outside party, s/he should first discuss it with the deaf person, and, if no agreement is reached, the two of them should decide who can advise them.
    c. When training other interpreters by the method of sharing actual experiences, interpreters should not reveal any of the following information: name, sex, age, etc. of the deaf or hearing person(s); day of the week, time of day or time of year the situation took place; the location, including the

city, state, or agency; other people involved; unnecessary specifics about the situation. It only takes a minimum amount of information to identify the parties involved.

2. Shall render a faithful interpretation, always conveying the content and spirit of the speaker, using language most readily understood by the persons for whom they are interpreting.

   a. Interpreters are not editors and must interpret everything which is said in exactly the same way it was intended. This is especially difficult when the interpreter disagrees with what is being said or feels uncomfortable when profanity is being used. Interpreters should remember that they are not at all responsible for what is said, only for conveying information accurately. If the interpreter's own feelings interfere with rendering a faithful interpretation, s/he should withdraw from the situation.

   b. While interpreting into sign, the interpreter must communicate in the manner most easily understood by the deaf person(s), to it ASL, manually coded English, fingerspelling, mouthing, gestures, drawing or writing, etc. It is important for the interpreter and deaf person to spend some time adjusting to each other's way of communicating prior to the actual interpreting situation. When interpreting into speech, the interpreter should speak the language spoken by the hearing person, be it English, Spanish, French, etc.

3. Shall not counsel, advise, or interject personal opinion (while functioning in this role).

Just as interpreters may not omit anything which is said (see no. 2), they may not add anything to the situation even when they are asked to do so by other parties involved. An interpreter is only present in a given situation because two or more people have difficulty communicating, and thus the interpreter's only function is that of facilitator of communication. S/he may not become personally involved because in so doing s/he will take on some responsibility for the outcome, which does not rightly belong to the interpreter.

4. Shall use discretion in accepting assignments with regard to skills, setting, and the persons requesting the service.

   a. An interpreter should only accept assignments for which s/he feels ready. However, when an interpreter shortage exists and the only available interpreter does not possess sufficient skill for a particular assignment, this situation should be explained to the deaf and hearing consumers of the of the interpreting service. If they agree that a lesser-skilled interpreter is better than no interpreter or that they cannot wait until a better-skilled interpreter becomes available, then the lesser-skilled interpreter will have to use his or her best judgement about accepting or turning down the assignment. All interpreters can benefit from additional training in areas in which they lack skill.

b. Certain situations may prove uncomfortable for some interpreters. For example, a male interpreter may feel uncomfortable interpreting for a deaf female patient in the doctor's office. Some interpreters will be uncomfortable in situations where controversial issues are discussed or in religious settings where what is being taught suffers from the interpreter's beliefs. An interpreter should not interpret in settings which s/he knows will negatively affect being able to render a faithful interpretation.

c. Interpreters should refrain from interpreting in situations where family members or close personal or professional relationships may affect impartiality. Even the most adept interpreters cannot be expected to mask inner feelings when interpreting for others who may affect their lives in some way. Under these circumstances, especially in legal settings, the ability to prove oneself unbiased when challenged is greatly lessened. In emergency situations it is realized that the interpreter may have to interpret for family members, friends, or close business associates. However, all parties should be informed that the interpreter may not become personally involved in the proceedings.

5. Shall deal with the matter of compensation for services in a professional and judicious manner (and shall be knowledgeable about the current fee guidelines suggested by the national organization).
   a. Interpreters are trained to work in a professional manner and are considered professionals. Therefore, they should be knowledgeable about fees which are appropriate to that profession.
   b. Since a sliding scale of hourly and daily rates has been set up for interpreters in many areas, all interpreters should have an idea of their own level of skill and the expected pay within their category. This can be determined by consideration of several factors, such as: level of certification, length of experience, nature of the assignment, and the local cost of living index ($7.50 an hour may seem high in one geographical area but low in another).

Current guidelines for compensation of interpreters are listed on pages A-25, 26 of the 1976 RID directory.

c. There are times when interpreters provide services without charge. This should be done with care and in such a way as to preserve the self-respect of the consumers. In other words, consumers should not feel they are recipients of charity. Care should be taken when interpreting without charge that other interpreters will be protected. In other words, a freelance interpreter may depend on this work for a living and cannot make it without charging while other persons have fulltime work and can interpret as a favor without feeling it is a loss of income.

6. Shall not personally profit from any information gained in the course of interpreting.

Interpreters must not take advantage of knowledge acquired while interpreting. For example, if, at an interpreted meeting, it is announced that a staff interpreter in a particular agency is going to be fired, the interpreter at the meeting cannot immediately go and apply for the job or tell others about it.

7. Through the national organization and state chapters, shall seek to uphold the integrity of the profession by encouraging the use of qualified interpreters in

order to achieve the highest standards. Interpreters working as officers and committee members in the national RID and local RID chapters should press for high standards among interpreters. For example, encouraging agencies to hire only certified interprets and the setting up of a mechanism to achieve compliance with the Code of Ethics are two of the many things which can be done.

8. Shall continue to develop his interpreting skills and keep abreast of developments in the field by participating in professional meetings, by joining with professional colleagues for the purpose of sharing information, and by reading current literature in the field.

APPENDIX D

SUGGESTED FEE SCHEDULE

SUGGESTED FEE SCHEDULE

(Revised 1973)

Interpreters Holding R.I.D. Certification

CSC: Comprehensive Skills Certificate

RSC: Reverse Skills Certificate

ETC: Expressive Translating Certificate

EIC: Expressive Interpreting Certificate

Interpreters Not Holding R.I.D. Certification

NCI: Non Certified Interpreter

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1. OCCASIONAL Interpreting Assignments
   a. CSC and RSC: Minimum three hours pay per "call".
   ETC and EIC: Minimum two hours pay per "call".
   b. CSC and RSC: $11.25 to $15.00 per hour, according to experience/qualifications.
   ETC and/or EIC: $10.00 per hour.
   NCI: Minimum of $5.00 to $7.50 per hour.
   c. CSC and RSC: Maximum $75.00 for "full day" assignments.
   ETC adn/or EIC: Maximum $50.00 for "full day" assignments.
   No more than six hours actual interpreting time.
2. CONFERENCES of Two or More Days Duration
   a. CSC and RSC: $75.00 per day; $375.00 per 5-day week.

ETC and EIC: $50.00 per day; $250.00 per 5-day week.

PLUS

b. Travel expenses and per diem at prevailing agency rate.

3. CONTRACT Interpreting

a. 15 hours or less per week on regular assignment basis.

b. CSC and RSC: $11.75 to $15.00 per hour according to experience/qualifications.

ETC and/or EIC: $10.00 per hour.

4. FULL TIME Interpreting

a. 4 hours daily or twenty hours weekly per 5-day week.

b. CSC and RSC: $260.00 per week.

ETC and EIC: $200 per week.

PLUS

c. Fringe benefits or salary commensurate to that of other professional staff within the agency.

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APPENDIX E

POLICIES, PROCEDURES
AND
GUIDELINES
FOR THE
IMPLEMENTATION OF THE
NATIONAL INTERPRETERS FOR THE DEAF TRAINING ACT
OF 1978

INTRODUCTION

The Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare is authorized under the provisions of the HR12467 and S.2600 bills to enter into an agreement with up to 12 institutions of higher education for the establishment of programs for training interpreters for the deaf and with numerous agencies for establishing a national network of interpreter services.

The institutions that are to be selected for training programs should have a substantial history of training interpreters, an ongoing training program, an ongoing interpreter service program, and high potential for obtaining accreditation for that training program from the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf. Six such institutions have been named in the Senate bill. These are Gallaudet College, California State University at Northridge, Seattle Community College, Delgado Junior College in New Orleans, the Technical Vocational Institute in St. Paul, and the National Technical Institute for the Deaf. Up to six additional institutions may be chosen to maintain interpreter training programs.

The organization expressly named in the Senate bill for setting standards for interpreters is the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. (RID). Agencies to be selected for providing information and referral services should have a substantial history of serving deaf persons, should be currently in the business of serving deaf persons, should be accepting of the certification standards of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc., and should have full support of the following national deaf/parent consumer organizations: the National Association of the Deaf (NAD)*; the Oral Deaf Adults Section (ODAS) of the Alexander Graham Bell Association for the Deaf (AGBAD); the International Association of Parents of the Deaf (IAPD); and the International Parents Organization (IPO) of the AGBAD.

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* NOTE: there are 47 state level associations of the deaf affiliated with NAD.

SECTION I: GUIDELINES FOR INTERPRETER TRAINING PROGRAMS

A. Initially, the number of regions should be six, to be referred to as the NORTHEAST REGION (NE), THE SOUTHEAST REGION (SE), THE NORTH CENTRAL REGION (NC), THE SOUTH CENTRAL REGION (SC), THE NORTHWEST REGION (NW), and the SOUTHWEST REGION (SW). Except for the NW region, the states and territories which make up these six regions hold nearly equal numbers of deaf persons and are as follows (see Figure 1):

1. NE: ME, NH, VT, MA, CN, RI, NY, PA, NJ
2. SE: OH, WV, MD, VA, NC, SC, GA, VI, PR
3. NC: MN, MI, WI, IA, IL, IN
4. SC: KA, MO, OK, LA, AR, KE, TE, AL, FL
5. NW: WA, ID, MO, ND, SD, NE, WY, CO, UT, NE, OR
6. SW: CA, AR, NM, TX, HA, AM. SAMOA, GUAM

B. The interpreter training programs of the following institutions should be immediately designated for the SE, NC, SW, NW, SC, and NE regions, respectively:

1. Gallaudet College in Washington, District of Columbia
2. St. Paul Technical Vocational Institute in St. Paul, Minnesota
3. California State University in Northridge, California
4. Seattle Central Community College in Seattle, Washington
5. Delgado College in New Orleans, Louisiana
6. National Technical Institute for the Deaf in Rochester, New York

C., Up to one additional interpreter training program per region will be named for the NE, SE, NC, SC, and SW regions as the need for them is established and as funds become available. Each such program will meet the following criteria:

1. Having institutional accreditation from a regional accrediting agency;

2. Having a prior commitment to the field of deafness through operation of other programs in the field of deafness (e.g., teacher training, counselor training, a program serving deaf students, etc.);

3. Having an ongoing interpreter training program with at least three years of history;

4. Having an interpreter services program with at least three years of history; i.e., the institution must have been serving deaf clients in its own curricula for at least three years, thus demonstrating a confidence in the capabilities of deaf students;

5. Having an ability to meet the criteria which are currently being formulated by the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. for accreditation of interpreter training programs:

   a. SETTING

      1) THERE ARE A VARIETY OF POST SECONDARY INSTITUTIONS SUITABLE FOR HOSTING A PROGRAM OF TRAINING INTERPRETERS FOR THE HEARING IMPAIRED.

         a) These post secondary institutions include:

            (1) Four year college or universities
            (2) Two year community or junior colleges
            (3) Technical schools

         b) The institution must be accredited by its respective accrediting body.

         c) The institution must demonstrate commitment to providing educational opportunity for handicapped individuals by complying with rules and regulations of Section 503 and 504 of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973.

         d) The goals of the institution must be consistent with the goals of and interpreter training program.

e) The institution provides a "climate" of openness and acceptance and flexibility of the challenges presented by an interpreter training program.

f) The institution must demonstrate a financial commitment to the continuation of the interpreter training program.

2) THE HOST INSTITUTION MUST HAVE AVAILABLE A VARIETY OF RESOURCES TO SUPPORT AN INTERPRETER TRAINING PROGRAM.

a) The institution must provide a range of support courses from which an interpreter training program can draw.

b) The institution must demonstrate a capability for intra-departmental cooperation and coordination. An example of this capability is joint registration in different program offerings in the host institution.

c) The institution must have the flexibility to add or change special course offerings to the interpreter training program as needed.

d) The institution must be prepared to create new staff responsibilities, train and add staff, etc., as the needs of the interpreter training program dictates.

e) The institution has the capability of providing short term, non-credit, and continuing education courses for the students and interpreters of the community.

f) The institution must have professional books, periodicals, journals, and materials on deafness and interpreting available to the interpreting training program staff and students.

g) Audio-visual media, particularly video tape equipment for production, must be available for the interpreter training program at the host institution.

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3) THE HOST INSTITUTION MUST HAVE AVAILABLE A VARIETY OF RESOURCES WITHIN THE COMMUNITY SERVED BY THE INSTITUTION TO SUPPORT THE INTERPRETER TRAINING PROGRAM.

    a) There must be available in the community agencies, organization and other resources to augment the interpreter training program.

    b) There must be available to the interpreter training program potential staff members and consultants from the community.

    c) There must be available in the geographic region served by the institution employment opportunities for graduates of the interpreter training program.

    d) There must be an active community of deaf persons in the area with whom interpreting students can identify socially, recreationally, and culturally.

    e) There must be available to the institution suitable practicum sites for students in the interpreter training program.

4) THE INTERPRETER TRAINING PROGRAM ITSELF MUST HAVE CERTAIN CHARACTERISTICS IN ADDITION TO A GOOD CURRICULUM.

    a) The interpreter training program must include a job placement component.

    b) The interpreter training program must be an independent division within the appropriate department of the institution.

b. CURRICULUM

A program desiring accreditation should be able to:

1) Demonstrate applicability of its curriculum towards requirements for RID certification

2) Show that its admissions policy is consistent with that of the supporting institution

3) Demonstrate flexibility in accommodating various levels of entering competence above the programs minimum requirements

4) Demonstrates that students completing the program have achieved a level of competence as set forth by the following guidelines.

c. SKILLS:

The interpreter will demonstrate competency in the following areas:

1) Conversational ASL

2) Conversational manually coded English

3) Translating a message from one mode (spoken/manual) to another (manual/spoken or spoken/spoken) in a quasi-simultaneous manner

4) Interpreting from one language (ASL or English) to another (English or ASL) consecutively

5) Selection of appropriate language or communication system for given situations

6) Effectively transmit the style, mood and intent of the communicators

7) Arrange appropriate interpersonal environmental conditions (e.g., lighting, mechanics)

8) English syntax and vocabulary as it applies to interpreting

9) Appropriate auditory and visual memory techniques as they apply to interpreting and translating

10) Appropriate public speaking/signing techniques as they apply to interpreting and translating

11) Use of the variety of telecommunication devices

d. ATTITUDES:

1) Supports professional organizations related to deafness (i.e., Sign Language and interpreting)

2) Continue to develop and upgrade professional competence

3) Performs their functions in accordance with national, state, and local guidelines, regulations and ethics

4) Recognizes personal performance strengths, weaknesses and limitations

5) Demonstrates involvement and support of the national and local deaf community

6) Foster healthy interpersonal relationships

7) Able and willing to work with a variety of sign language and communicative strategies (gestures, oral, etc.)

e. **KNOWLEDGE**:

1) Linguistics of ASL and English

2) Principles or communicative and interpersonal dynamics

3) Principles of interpreting and translating

4) Role of interpreter/translator

5) Psycho-social aspects of issues relating to deafness

6) Situation processes and protocol

7) History of the development of manual/visual language

8) Professional organizational activities, certificates, publications, etc. related to deafness

9) Educational aspects and issues of deafness

10) Audiology and Etiology of deafness

11) Variety of telecommunication devices

f. **PERSONNEL**:

Min. Reg.	Staff	Qualifications	Functions
3 full-time or equivalent of which one shall be deaf	Director/ Department head	M.A. or M.S. (Degree in deafness or related areas or equivalent experiences) RID Certification	Traditional Admin. responsibilites Liason with deaf community, government agencies (i.e., V.R., Social Services, etc.)

f. PERSONNEL: (cont'd)

MIN. Reg.	Staff	Qualifications	Functions
	Instructors (preferred ratio 10:1)	B.A. or equivalent RID certification: CSC/RSC plus S.I.G.N. Certificate or 540 hours classroom teaching experience or 270 hours classroom teaching under supervision	Traditional teaching responsibilities (lab, lecture, advisor, materials and resource development)
	Part time instructors and/or Resource Personnel	Competency in own field	Guest lecturers, lab practicums, reaction panelists, etc.
	Media Specialist	Traditional	Traditional
	Clerical Staff	Traditional and Sign Language competency	Traditional

g. GUIDELINES FOR SHORT-TERM PROGRAMS

STAFF	QUALIFICATIONS	RESPONSIBILITIES
Coordinator	B.A. degree or Equivalent experience RID Certification - CSC/RSC S.I.G.N. Certification desirable Minimum of 3 years experience in education or the deaf community	Schedule and plans short term training programs including the mechanics of physical and housekeeping needs. Liason between program sponsors and consultants Recruitment, advertising Budget management Skill assessment Teaching

5. Having an officially declared intent to seek accreditation for its program by the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. (see Appendix B);

6. Having an official endorsement by the four consumer organizations named in the Introduction.

D. Satellite centers for the named training programs should be chosen in accordance with the overall interpreter training needs. These programs will assume functions such as the following:

1. Recruitment and selection
2. Preparation of persons to attend interpreter training programs
3. Consumer education
4. In-service training for interpreters
5. Job placement for graduates from the training programs.

SECTION II: GUIDELINES FOR THE PROGRAM OF CERTIFICATION AND FOR THE NETWORK OF SERVICES SPECIFIED IN THE SENATE BILL

A. At the national level, the national office of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. (RID) should be staffed adequately to aid the process of certification required by the bills and the process of accreditation of interpreter training programs described in the previous section. RID will be required to use the four national consumer organizations named in the Introduction in the following ways:

1. to provide consumer information regarding the need for interpreting services;

2. to refine certification standards;

3. to provide continuing feedback on skill levels of graduates from the interpreter training programs;

4. to participate in the program of research and evaluation described in the next section; and

5. consumer advocacy.

B. Any agency in a given state coordinating the efforts of information and referral centers and interpreter referral centers for deaf individuals will include the combined forces of the state level registry of interpreters affiliated with RID and the state association of the deaf affiliated with NAD (examples of some model centers of this kind which already exist are listed in appendix C).

SECTION III: RESEARCH AND EVALUATION

The Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. will assume a broad research and evaluation, responsibility regarding the training and the services aspects of the Congressional bills. This responsibility will be in coordination with the four national consumer organizations mentioned in the Introduction. The research responsibility will be a correlating responsibility and the evaluation responsibility will be an integral part of the accreditation process.

SECTION IV: DEFINITIONS AND OTHER SPECIAL INFORMATION

A. Interpreting Terminology

1. AN INTERPRETER:

An interpreter is an individual who qualifies for one of the RID certifications described below or who holds a provisional permit and who adheres to the established code of ethics of RID:

. ETC - Expressive Translating Certification - Ability of the interpreter to simultaneously translate from spoken to manual English (verbatim). The interpreter possesses very basic reverse translating competencies.

. EIC - Expressive Interpreting Certification - Ability of the interpreter to use Sign Language with hearing-impaired persons who possess various levels of language competencies. The interpreter also has basic reverse interpreting competencies.

. CSC - Comprehensive Skills Certification - Includes proficiency in:

Expressive Translating - (ability to simultaneously translate from spoken to manual English - verbatim.)

Expressive Interpreting - (ability to use sign language with hearing-impaired persons who possess various levels of language competence.)

Reverse Skills - (ability to render - manually, orally, or written - a hearing-impaired person's message.)

. RSC - Reverse Skills Certification - Ability to render (manually, orally, or written) a hearing-impaired person's message.

. LSC - Legal Specialist Certification - Includes Comprehensive Skills plus specialized evaluation to qualify for interpreting in a variety of legal settings. This legal certification is based on the premise that Comprehensive Skills Certification has been awarded and that the interpreting skills competencies are maintained.

. OSC - Oral Specialist Certification - To be specified soon with RID working with NTID and a committee of oral interpreters named by AGBAD and NTID.

2. TRANSLATING AND INTERPRETING:

In translating, the thoughts and words of the speaker are presented verbatim to the deaf person using the language of signs, fingerspelling, and speech.

In interpreting, the interpreter may depart from the exact words of the speaker and paraphrase, define, and/or explain what the speaker is saying using the language of signs, fingerspelling, speech, and/or other means of communication.

3. Oral - use of gesture, facial expression and natural, clear mouth movement to communicate to deaf persons. Use of spoken English to communicate to deaf and hearing persons.

4. Minimal Language Communication - using home signs, gestures, pantomime, mime, or any visual mode (drawing pictures, etc.) which communicates information to the individual and using a communication strategy that the individual understands.

5. Deaf/Blind Interpreting - interpreting which includes some form of tactile or visual communication or a combination of both appropriate for deaf persons with vision impairments.

B. Interpreting Settings

. Legal
. Educational
. Religious
. Entertainment
. Medical
. Rehabilitation
. Social Work
. Mass Media

PROPOSED GEOGRAPHIC
REGIONS

NORTHEAST REGION (NE):	*Deaf (Shein & Dalk)	Total
Maine	6,765	
Massachusetts	39,097	
New Hampshire	5,[illegible]77	
New York	125,275	
Rhode Island	6,312	
Vermont	3,128	
Connecticut	20,921	
New Jersey	49,401	
Pennsylvania	80,946	337,021
SOUTHEAST REGION (SE): (excluding Florida)		
Delaware	4,931	
District of Columbia	6,489	
Maryland	35,208	
Ohio	102,053	
Virginia	40,587	
West Virginia	15,662	
Georgia	41,035	
North Carolina	45,124	
South Carolina	22,804	313,893
+ Virgin Islands	?	
+ Puerto Rico	?	
NORTH CENTRAL REGION (NC):		
Illinois	105,815	
Indiana	49,985	
Minnesota	36,786	
Wisconsin	42,460	
Michigan	85,208	
Iowa	27,052	347,306

SOUTH CENTRAL REGION (SC):

(plus Florida)

Alabama	30,832	
Arkansas	17,299	
Kentucky	28,952	
Mississippi	19,725	
Tennessee	35,477	
Florida	62,093	
Louisiana	32,541	
Oklahoma	23,036	
Kansas	21,080	
Missouri	44,688	315,723

NORTHWEST REGION (NW):

Alaska	2,664	
Montana	6,566	
Washington	13,608	
Idaho	6,798	
Oregon	20,174	
North Dakota	5,808	
South Dakota	6,299	
Wyoming	3,148	
Nebraska	14,231	
Colorado	20,926	
Utah	10,225	
Nevada	4,647	133,094

SOUTHWEST REGION (SW):

California	185,708	
Hawaii	6,891	
Texas	100,961	
Arizona	16,986	
New Mexico	9,462	320,008
+ American Samoa	?	
+ Guam	?	

Office of Human Development Services
Rehabilitation Services Administration Personnel

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
Washington, D.C. 20201

Robert R. Humphreys, Commissioner
Wilmer S. Hunt, Executive Asst. Commissioner
Boyce R. Williams, Director, Deafness and Communicative Disorders Office
William Eshelman, Asst. Commissioner for Special Programs

William M. Usdane, Asst. Commissioner. Program Development
Frederick Sachs, Asst. Commissioner, Program Management
James F. Garrett, Exec. Director, Office of Rehabilitation, Research and Demonstration

Region I

New England: Connecticut, Maine
Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont
Office of Rehab. Svcs., Dept. of Health, Educ., & Welfare, John F. Kennedy Fed. Bldg., Government Ctr., Boston, MA 02203
John J. Szufnarowski, Director

Region III - Gallaudet*

Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Virginia, West Virginina
Office of Rehab. Svcs.; Dept. of Health, Educ., & Welfare, 3535 Market St., P.O. Box 13716, Philadelphia, PA 19101
Ralph Pacinelli, Director

Region V - TVI*

Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, Wisconsin
Office of Rehab. Svcs., Dept. of Health, Educ., & Welfare, 300 S. Wacker Dr., 30th Fl., Chicago, IL 60606
Ralph Church, Director

Region VII

Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska
Office of Rehab. Svcs., Dept. of Health, Educ., & Welfare, 601 E. 12th St., Kansas City, MO 64106
LeRoy Larsen, Acting Director

Region II - NTID*, NYU

New Jersey, New York, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands
Office of Rehab. Svcs., Dept. of Health, Educ., & Welfare, 26 Federal Plaza, Rm. 4106, New York, NY 10007
Anthony S. DeSimone, Director

Region IV - Tenn

Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky
Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee
Office of Rehab. Svcs., Dept. of Health, Educ., & Welfare, 101 Marietta St., N.W., Ste. 903, Atlanta, GA 30323
Stephen Cornett, Director

Region VI - Delgado*

Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas
Office of Rehab. Svcs., Dept. of Health, Educ., & Welfare, Fidelity Union Life Bldg., Rm. 340, 1511 Bryan St., Dallas, TX 75201
H.B. Simmons, Director

Region VIII

Colordado, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, Wyoming
Office of Rehab. Svcs., Dept. of Health, Educ., & Welfare, Fed. Office Bldg., Rm. 7415, 19th & Stout Sts., Denver, CO 80202
James Ballantyne, Director

DISTRIBUTION OF THE HEARING IMPAIRED POPULATION BY STATES:

UNITED STATES, 1971*

State	Hearing Impaired	Deaf	Prevocationally Deaf
Alabama	234,498	30,832	6,753
Alaska	20,480	2,664	533
Arizona	130,613	16,986	3,530
Arkansas	131,577	17,299	3,780
California	1,427,928	185,708	38,595
Colorado	160,902	20,926	4,349
Connecticut	179,486	20,921	5,209
Delaware	37,506	4,931	1,080
District of Columbia	49,350	6,489	1,421
Florida	472,263	62,093	13,600
Georgia	312,096	41,035	8,988
Hawaii	52,990	6,891	1,432
Idaho	52,274	6,793	1,413
Illinois	719,792	105,815	26,510
Indiana	340,011	49,985	12,522
Iowa	184,017	27,052	6,778
Kansas	143,395	21,080	5,281
Kentucky	220,203	28,952	6,342
Louisiana	247,499	32,541	7,128
Maine	58,036	6,765	1,685
Maryland	267,783	35,208	7,712
Massachusetts	335,423	39,097	9,734
Michigan	579,614	85,208	21,347
Minnesota	250,234	36,786	9,216
Mississippi	150,024	19,725	4,320
Missouri	303,982	44,688	11,196
Montana	53,706	6,566	1,264
Nebraska	96,799	14,231	3,565
Nevada	35,732	4,647	966
New Hampshire	44,403	5,177	1,288
New Jersey	423,821	49,101	12,299
New Mexico	72,753	9,462	1,966
New York	1,074,764	125,275	31,190
North Carolina	343,204	45,124	9,883
North Dakota	39,507	5,808	1,455
Ohio	694,198	102,053	25,567
Oklahoma	175,209	23,036	5,046
Oregon	154,815	20,174	4,184
Pennsylvania	694,455	80,946	20,153
Rhode Island	54,131	6,312	1,571
South Carolina	173,440	22,804	4,995
South Dakota	42,854	6,299	1,579
Tennessee	269,825	35,477	7,770
Texas	767,877	100,961	22,113
Utah	78,626	10,225	2,126
Vermont	26,836	3,128	780
Virginia	308,692	40,587	8,890
Washington	243,036	31,608	6,568
West Virginia	119,121	15,662	3,430
Wisconsin	288,823	42,460	10,637
Wyoming	24,204	3,148	654

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*Schein, Jerome D., and Delk, Marcus T. The Deaf Population of the United States. Silver Springs, Maryland: National Association of the Deaf, 1974.

Region IX - CSUN*, Arizona

Arizona, American Samoa, California, Hawaii, Nevada, Guam, Trust Territory of Pacific Islands
Office of Rehab. Svcs., Dept. of Health, Educ., & Welfare, Fed. Off. Bldg., 50 United Nations Plaza, San Francisco, CA 94102
Dale Williamson, Director

Region X - SCCC*

Alaska, Idaho, Oregon, Washington
Office of Rehab. Svcs., Dept. of Health, Educ., & Welfare, Arcade Bldg., 1321 2nd Ave., Seattle, WA 98101
Lewis Davis, Acting Director

* designated centers
remaining NITC centers

PHILOSOPHY

Communication with other individuals is a vital aspect in the life of every person. New public legislation and changing societal attitudes allow deaf individuals a greater participation in a society that has long excluded them from its affairs. The Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, an organization committed to quality interpreting, has been instrumental in supporting and promoting these changes.

The RID was established for the purpose of maintaining a registry of interpreters and encouraging the professionalization of heretofore untrained individuals. The certification of interpreters by RID was established in 1972 to identify persons having achieved a minimum skill level necessary to meet the communication needs of hearing-impaired persons.

With the increasing demand for interpreters possessing professional levels of skill, the need for providing educational training has become paramount.

To maintain standards and uniformity in the development of programs nationwide, the RID is committed to providing guidelines for the accreditation purposes which uphold the quality of interpreting services to hearing-impaired people, thus providing an opportunity to participate in the affairs of society.

The process of interpreter preparation must prepare persons to understand deaf people, their community and the diversity of language used by deaf individuals.

It must insure that these persons also are prepared to facilitate the communications of deaf individuals regardless of their communication preference.

The following are a list of Interpreter Training Programs that are non-degree but train large numbers of interpreters:

NYU/NITC
80 Washington Square E.
Janet Avacedo, Coordinator
Deafness & Research Center
New York, N.Y. 10003

CSUN/NITC
18111 Nordhoff St. Bldg. S
Mel Carter, Coordinator
Special Education Programs
Northridge, Calif. 91324

U. of Tenn./NITC
Nancy Kramer, Coordinator
Dept. of Special Education
Knoxville, Tennessee 37916

Gallaudet College/NITC
7th and Florida Avenues
Rita Dominque, Coordinator
S.L. Programs
Washington, D.C. 20002

University of Arizona/NITC
Annetta Long, Coordinator
Dept. of Special Education
Tucson, Arizona 85721

National Technical Institute for the Deaf
Interpreter Training Program
Ms. Anna Braddock, Coordinator
One Lomb Memorial Drive
Rochester, New York 14623

T.V.I./NITC
235 Marshall Ave.
Robert Lauritson, Coordinator
Interpreter Training Program
St. Paul, Minnesota 55102

Columbus Technical School
550 E. Spring Box 1609
Interpreter Training Program
Janet Dobecki, Coordinator
Columbus, Ohio 43216

Claremont Community College
Interpreter Training Program
Olouse Tullos, Coordinator
Claremont, New Hampshire 07343

Central Piedmont Community College
P.O. Box 4009
Interpreter Training Program
Eddie Hodges, Coordinator
Charlotte, North Carolina 28204

Community College of Philadelphia
34 South 11th Street
Eve West, Coordinator
Interpreter Training Program
Philadelphia, Pa. 19107

University of Wisconsin
2400 E. Hartford Avenue
Dept. of Exceptional Educational Programs
Dr. Leo Dicker, Coordinator
Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53201

Eastfield College
Elizabeth Fettar, Coordinator
3737 Motley Drive
Mesquite, Texas 75149

Oregon College of Education
Shirley Shisler
Monmouth, Oregon

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APPENDIX F

STANDARDS AND CRITERIA

FOR

SIGN INSTRUCTORS GUIDANCE NETWORK

CERTIFICATION

STANDARDS AND CRITERIA FOR S.I.G.N. CERTIFICATION

(Effective July 1, 1978)

To be eligible for permanent certification, a candidate must meet the following requirements:

1) The candidate must apply for evaluation at least 60 days prior to taking the evaluation. Member of SIGN must at this time, remit a $20.00 evaluation fee. $15.00 of this fee is refundable should the Credentials Committee adjudge the applicant as not qualified for the evaluation. Nonmembers of SIGN must pay an evaluation fee of $100.00, $75.00 of which is refundable should the Credentials Committee adjudge the applicant as not qualified for the examination. Should an applicant fail the initial evaluation, he/she is entitled to one re-examination at the fee of $15.00 for members and $25.00 for nonmembers.
2) The candidate must have a minimum of 240 clock hours of paid experience teaching manual communication in an accepted program* within the past three years.
3) The candidate must have a minimum of five years of contact with and use of manual communication.

Additionally, the candidate must meet one of the following requirements:

1) a B.A. or M.A. degree in education or a related field

OR

2) a B.A. or M.A. degree in any field plus 120 clock hours of paid, supervised experience teaching manual communication in an accepted program*

OR

3) 60 clock hours of paid experience teaching manual communication in an accepted program* under the supervision of a Comprehensive Permanent Certified member of SIGN

OR

4) 240 clock hours of paid, supervised experience teaching manual communication in an accepted program*.

*An accepted program is defined as follows:

An accepted program of manual communication instruction is one that is affiliated with a public or private agency, an educational institution or a continuing education program in which the manual communication instructors are paid and which has a supervisor or coordinator of manual communication courses. Determination of what constitues an accepted program is to be made by the Credentials Committee.

EVALUATION PROCESS

A complete SIGN evaluation for certification consists of three parts, all of which are normally conducted on the same day.

1. Written examinations

A written examination will be given for each of the seven subject areas covered in the reading materials. We will send the packet of reading materials to the applicant by mail once he/she is registered with our office. The applicant should be sure to have read, in advance, all the materials thoroughly and is familiar with the concepts discussed in them.

2. Receptime skills test

Applicants will view a set of videotapes in which their receptive skills in both American Sign Language (ASL) and Manually Coded English (MCE) are tested.

Those applicants who successfully pass the written examinations and the receptive skills test are then eligible for the final portion of the evaluation process, the interview.

3. Interview

Each eligible applicant will be interviewed by a panel of five evaluators. The interview is designed to allow the panel to evaluate those qualities that are often not revealed in written examinations. Among those topics discussed during the interview are: attitudes toward Deaf people and Sign Language, general knowledge of the field of Sign Language instruction and any other additional strengths the applicant may have that were not uncovered earlier.

SIGN CERTIFICATES

Applicants with not more than two areas of deficiency overall may be awarded provisional certification. This indicates that the evaluation panel believes the applicant should be able, within a year, to acquire additional training or experience and be re-examined in those areas not passed initially for possible permanent certification.

Permanent certification is given to a person who: a) in the judgement of the Credentials Committee, has satisfied the Standards and Criteria for permanent certification and b) has completed all three portions of the evaluation process with no area of deficiency.

Based on two things: a) the Credentials Committee's review of the applicant's Personal Data Questionnaire and b) the results of all three parts of the evaluation process, one of the following SIGN certificates is awarded:

1. Comprehensive permanent:

This certificate is valid for 5 years and is an indication of the holder's skills in providing quality instruction in ASL and MCE.

2. ASL permanent:

This certificate is valid for 5 years and is an indication of the holder's skills in providing quality instruction in ASL.

3. MCE permanent:

This certificate is valid for 5 years and is an indication of the holder's skills in providing quality instruction in MCE.

4. Comprehensive provisional:

This certificate is valid for one year and is an indication, with additional training, of the holder's skill in providing quality instruction ASL and MCE.

5. ASL provisional:

This certificate is valid for one year and is an indication, with additional training, of the holder's skill in providing quality instruction in ASL.

6. MCE provisional:

This certificate is valid for one year and is an indication, with addtional training, of the holder's skill in providing quality instruction in MCE.

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Her work experience in the field of education includes: two years teaching social studies in a junior high school, one year as an English teacher for foreign students and deaf students, two years as a counselor for deaf students, and two years as an assistant professor and chairman of the Manual Communication Department in a community college.

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